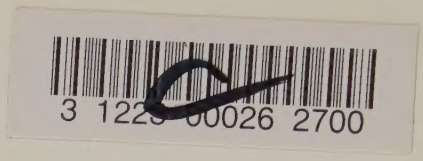
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OF THE AGES,

—OUR—

Method of Government

—AND—

CENTENNIAL HISTORY,

WITH FACTS AND FIGURES INVALUABLE TO EVERY AMERICAN CITIZEN,

TOGETHER WITH THE

LIVES OF THE PRESIDENTS,

AND BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF

THE REPRESENTATIVE MEN OF THE WORLD.

By JEROME BONAPARTE WASHINGTON.

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TO
MY FELLOW CITIZENS
OF
EVERY NATIONALITY,
THIS BOOK, WHICH IS PUT FORTH FOR THEIR GOOD
AND THAT OF THEIR CHILDREN, IS
RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED BY
THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

Six thousand years of history! What man in this busy age can find the time to wade through exhaustive histories of two hundred generations of men? The first object of this book is to present a brief resumé of Universal history, so that the reader may follow the march of time, and readily locate the great events of every century, and obtain a comprehensive view of all nations and all ages.

The second great aim is to put into the possession of Americans a world of information regarding their own country. The early history of the colonies is followed by a condensed but comprehensive record of the Revolution. The great events of the first hundred years of our national life are graphically sketched, including the lives of the presidents, political changes, our foreign wars, the Great Rebellion, and the Reconstruction that closes the century. Everything relating to our institutions which a citizen needs to know is presented with such an array of facts and statistics as bring in full review the marvelous progress and development of the country in population, wealth and enlightenment, and make this pre-eminently the American citizen's Centennial volume.

A third object of this work is to gather up the leading features and characteristics of the mighty men in various departments of human activity and present these for the study and guidance of the men of our times.

The world's history is really the history of its great men. Founders and reformers in religion, princes in finance, war, politics and philosophy, including our own men of mark, and historical names of other ages and countries are sketched, and their careers held up for approbation or warning. Naturally and necessarily much of our country's glorious history is condensed into the biographies of those who have made her prosperous, or are now controlling her destiny. The Chief Magistrates, exponents and representatives of opinions and parties, have their portraiture here. The rise of States is traced, and their position in the political heavens mapped out. Such a collection of facts renders this

volume as interesting as a story and as helpful as a Cyclopædia. The substance of many volumes is concentrated in this, and in such space and form that one can gather into his mind, in brief hours of leisure, the results of years of research and composition.

In these days of the Press, books are multiplied until the attention is confused by their number and scope. It becomes a desideratum to find much matter compressed into a few pages, because time is money, and few can hunt through bushels of chaff for a few grains of wheat, or spend months over prolix histories and memoirs to glean what is needed for the actual necessities of information concerning questions of interest to the American citizen and the man of affairs.

Every reasonable exertion has been made to procure the best sources of knowledge concerning each person and topic treated in this work, and to arrange the matter in a succinct and readable form. From the immense scope of subjects here surveyed and illustrated, every person who reads the work will be sure to find something of deep interest and peculiar value to himself, and its treatment and range is such as to constitute it, not an ephemeral thing, to be glanced at and cast aside, but a volume for frequent reference and recurring perusal. It is with this idea in view that the publisher has striven to impart to the work that thoroughness and attractiveness which shall give it welcome in the family and library of the masses of our intelligent countrymen.

In the bulk of curious information concerning our political fabric, and the summaries of laws and enactments affecting individuals, classes, and communities, it is intended to make the work essential—a *sine-qua-non*—to the people.

In recognition of the universal love of pictorial representation, this volume is embellished with numerous illustrations, conveying, through the eye, to the mind, just and vivid conceptions of many of the characters and objects described, and of monuments of human skill and power, which minister to the gratification or the necessities of mankind.

INTRODUCTION.

UNIVERSAL HISTORY is commonly divided into three portions:—

I. ANCIENT HISTORY, which, beginning with the creation of the world, 4004 B. C., terminates A. D. 476, in the destruction of the Roman empire.

II. THE MIDDLE AGES, which extend from the fall of Rome, A. D. 476, to the discovery of America, A. D. 1492.

III. MODERN HISTORY, which commences at the latter epoch, and if we do not distinguish it from Contemporaneous History, is continued to the present time.

The events which mark the separation between the *First* and *Second* periods, are the Irruption of the Barbarians, the consequent fall of the Western Empire, and the foundation of the modern European states; between the *Second* and the *Third* are the extension of learning by the invention of printing, the taking of Constantinople, the martime discoveries of Spain and Portugal, with the more extensive use of fire-arms.

I. ANCIENT HISTORY may be subdivided into four periods:—

1. The *Antediluvian*, comprising the creation, the fall of man with its immediate train of consequences, and ending with the general deluge, 2348 B. C.

2. The *Heroic*, commencing with the establishment of the earliest empires and most ancient cities, and including the fabulous ages of Greece.

3. The *Historic*, which begins with the first Olympiad, 776 B. C., nearly synchronous with the foundation of Rome, 753 B. C., and comprises the legislative eras of Lycurgus and Solon, the rise and fall of the Persian monarchy, and the earlier part of Roman history to the end of Punic wars.

4. The *Roman*, from the fall of Carthage, 146 B. C., to that of Rome, A. D. 476.

II. THE MIDDLE AGES may be conveniently arranged in the following six periods.—

1. The foundation of the modern states of Western Europe, A. D. 476-622, when the Saxons invaded Britain, 449; the Visigoths settled in Spain, 507; the Ostrogoths in Italy, 489, and the Franks began the formation of the French monarchy, A. D. 481.

2. The *Second* comprehends the age of Mohammed, with the propagation of his creed and the establishment of the states which embraced his religion, A. D. 622-800.

3. The *Third* embraces the period when the empire of the West was partially restored in the Franco-Germanic dominions of Charlemagne, 800-936.

4. The *Fourth* is the interesting period of the dark ages, 936-1100, during which the monarchy of Charlemagne fell to ruin, the Capetian dynasty began to reign in France, Italy was parcelled out among a number of petty princes; while in Germany Otho commenced the long-continued struggle against feudalism.

5. The *Fifth* is the romantic or heroic period of the Crusades, 1096-1273, in which the Roman legal code, the foundation of great part of modern jurisprudence, began to be studied.

6. The *Sixth* beheld the revival of the Fine Arts in Italy, the taking of Constantinople and consequent diffusion of its learned men, the revival of letters, the discovery of America, 1492, and the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, 1497.

III. MODERN HISTORY may be conveniently divided into six portions:—

1. The period of the Reformation, from its commencement by Luther, in 1517, till the termination of the long series of Italian wars, in 1559.

2. The period of the religious wars, particularly in France, from 1559 to the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, which produced many important changes in Europe.

3. The period from 1648 to the death of Louis XIV., in 1715, during which Russia entered into the European commonwealth, and Great Britain began to assume preponderating influence on the Continent.

4. The *Fourth* period terminates with the peace of Versailles, 1783, which established the independence of the United States, and during which Prussia became a first-rate power.

5. The French Revolution, from the meeting of the States-general, in 1789, to the restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.

6. The period from the battle of Waterloo, 1815, to the present day.

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ANCIENT HISTORY.

FORTY-FIRST CENTURY

4004, Creation of the World.

CREATION, 4004 B. C.—"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth," and by the power of his word, gave to a rude chaotic mass the admirable beauty and variety which now everywhere salute the eye. Man was formed the last and best of his works, in the image of his Maker, upright and happy, with powers of understanding and will. With his companion Eve, miraculously framed out of his own substance, he dwelt in the garden of Eden, where, yielding to the suggestions of the Tempter, he transgressed the divine commands, and incurred all the penalties due to the violation of a positive law. Sin, with its mournful train, entered into the world, and though the Messiah was graciously promised, our first parents, being driven from Paradise, were condemned to a life of toil and to the forfeiture of immortality.

THIRTY-NINTH CENTURY.

3875, Death of Abel—Posterity of Adam—Seth, *born* 3874.

ABEL.—After his fall, Adam had two sons, Cain and Abel; the one a husbandman, the other a shepherd, and each as different from the other in temper as in occupation. Filled with rage and jealousy at the acceptance of his brother's sacrifice, Cain put forth his hand and murdered him, 3875. Thus our first parent beheld the fruits of his disobedience, not only in the presence of death, till then unknown, but in his first-born becoming the minister of vengeance. The descendants of his third son, Seth, were as distinguished for piety, as those of Cain for irreligion; the former were in consequence denominated *the sons of God*, and the latter, *the sons of men.*

In the new world population rapidly increased; fields were cultivated, cattle bred, and their skins used for clothing; Jabal made the first tents; musical instruments were the invention of Jubal; and Tubal-Cain (supposed by some to be the Vulcan of Pagan mythology) discovered the art of working in metals. Already the strong began to assume authority over the weak. The offering of expiatory sacrifices and the sanctification of the Sabbath originated in this early period.

TWENTY-FOURTH CENTURY.

2348, Universal Deluge.

DELUGE.—The death of Adam, 3074, the translation of Enoch, 3017, the feebleness of the other patriarchs, and the luxuriant abundance of the earth, filled man's heart with presumption and guilt. Impiety made rapid progress, and like a contagious pestilence infected all the mass of society. In the midst of the general depravity one individual alone *found grace in the eyes of the Lord.* In the year of the world 1656, the whole of the human race was destroyed by a deluge, the only survivors being Noah and his family, in all eight persons, who were preserved in an ark built in obedience to the divine command, 2348 B. C. On the subsiding of the waters, this vessel rested on Mount Ararat, in Armenia, whence all the earth was again progressively peopled. The rainbow was then appointed as a covenant between God and man, that *there should not be any more flood to destroy the earth.*

One of the most remarkable effects of the Deluge was the rapid decrease of the duration of human life. The ten antediluvian patriarchs lived on an average 850 years each, while their immediate successors did not exceed 320. But under a favorable climate and with an increasing population, the arts soon reached a high state of perfection. The longevity of the postdiluvian patriarchs had the effect of maintaining the natural authority of the parent, while it also tended to repress the fickle passions of youth. When God's more immediate protection was removed, the span of life was contracted, and now its very brevity gives vigor to all the efforts of society, and the rapid change of actors inspires each with a hope of excelling in his own brief stage.

TWENTY-THIRD CENTURY.

Dispersion of Mankind—Formation of Nations—2247, Babel—Nimrod founds the Chaldean Monarchy, 2234, CHINA—First dynasty: Fohi, 2207.

THE DISPERSION.—The distribution of the world among the children of Noah was not made at random; for as early as the third generation after the Flood, it was arranged by the patriarch under

the immediate direction of God. By this division Europe and Northern Asia fell to Japhet; Central Asia to Shem; and to Ham were assigned the distant regions of Africa. But violence was early used to derange this partition; Nimrod, the Belus of profane writers, expelled Ashur from the land of Shinar, and Canaan, the son of Ham, seized upon Palestine, which belonged to Shem. In the subsequent expulsion of the Canaanites by the Hebrews, we behold the certain though tardy retribution of the Almighty.

BABEL, 2247.—The decendants of Cush, who had refused to follow the rest of the children of Ham into Africa, seized upon the fertile plains of Shinar, where under Nimrod they began to build the tower of Babel, and lay the foundation of a permanent monarchy. But, lest the progress of the infant society of the world should be crushed by an oppressive despotism, God confounded their language and scattered them over the face of the earth. Around that remarkable edifice the magnificent city of Babylon was afterwards raised (32° 25′ N. 44° E.)

FORMATION OF NATIONS.

All the various races that people the earth's surface spring from the three sons of Noah, and are divided into three corresponding branches.

I. JAPHET may be regarded as the parent of the *White* or *Caucasian* branch, which spread over most part of Europe, S. Asia and N. Africa. It admits of three subdivisions:—

a.—The *Arameans*, a race dwelling between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean, including the Arabs, Egyptians, and Abyssinians;

b.—*Indians*, *Pelasgians*, and Germans, from whom are descended the inhabitants of India, and of great part of Europe;

c.—*Scythians* and *Tartars*, or the people bordering on the Caspian Sea, among whom are the Turks, Hungarians, and Finns.

II. SHEM is the parent stock of the *Tawny olive* or *Mongol* race, which admits of six divisions:—

a.—The *Mantchoos* in Central Asia;

b.—The *Chinese* in China and Japan;

c.—The *Hyperboreans*, who peopled the extreme north of Europe, Asia, and America, such as the Laplanders, Samoeids and Esquimaux.

d.—The *Malays* in Malacca, and those islands comprehended in the term Malasia, the chief of which are Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes.

e.—The *Oceanians*, differing little from the preceding, inhabit the numerous small islands lying in a S. E. direction between Japan and the equator, with New Zealand, the Sandwich, and the Society Islands.

f. Americans, or copper colored Indians. who composed the primitive population of the New World.

III. Ham was the father of the *black* race which may be subdivided into,—

a.—The *Ethiopians* in Central Africa;

b.—The *Caffres* on the South-eastern coast;

c.—The *Hottentots* of the South of Africa.

Both tradition and history point to the remote East as the storehouse of the human race. From the table-land in the vicinity of Balkh, in more recent times, issued the Huns, Avars, Magyars, Mongols, and Turks; and modern researches derive the Hindoos from the same locality.

Traces of three primeval languages may also be found:—1. The *Arabic* or *Chaldee*, from which spring the dialects used by the Assyrians, Arabs, and Jews.—2. From the *Sanscrit*, radically different from the Arabic, spring the Greek, Latin, and Celtic dialects, the Persian, Armenian, and old Egyptian:—3. From the *Slavonic* or *Tartarian*, essentially different from the two preceding, are formed the various dialects of northern Asia and north-eastern Europe. The Hindoos preserve a tradition that there were originally eighteen languages.

Modern naturalists, confining their view to the animal nature of man, and taking no account of language or of the minor and superficial varieties in the exterior, admit at present of *five* races, Caucasian, Negro, Tartar, American, Malay.

TWENTY-SECOND CENTURY.

EGYPT.—2188, Menes—Beginning of Genuine History.

Great obscurity covers the early part of Egyptian history; the account given by Moses has reference merely to his own age; and the information derived from Herodotus, Manetho, and others, tends rather to confuse than to enlighten us. The sacred island of Meroe, formed by the confluence of the Astaboras and the Astapus (the Tecazze and the Blue River) with the Nile, appears to have been the centre of commercial and religious resort. Thence the primitive civilizers of mankind, bearing with them the worship of Ammon and Osiris, the arts of life, the habits of trade, and, above all, the science and implements of agriculture, gradually spread their industrious colonies down the Nile. In some parts they found a rude race already settled (probably some pastoral Arab tribes who had come round by the way of the isthmus), and over whom they assumed the ascendant of superior civilization, and formed a higher caste. At an early period the mountains which skirt the fertile plains of Thebes, were excavated into dwellings, for themselves and their gods; whence, gradually spreading over the intervening plain, they laid the foundations of the "hundred-gated city." Sacerdotal colonies, forming separate *nomes*, gradually fixed themselves in all places

suited for agriculture or traffic; the temple, college, and mart, became a new city, and perhaps a kingdom. Almost every ancient city bore the name of its god, as Diospolis (*Thebes*), Heliopolis (*On*), Hephaistopolis (*Memphis*), and many others.

TWENTIETH CENTURY.

SACRED HISTORY.—1921, Call of Abraham—Destruction of Sodom.—1968, Ninus suppose to reign in Assyria.

ABRAHAM, of the race of Shem, was born in Ur of the Chaldees. Although connected with the idolatrous fire-worship of his native country, he possessed some knowledge of the true God, for he obeyed the divine command without hesitation, and moved westward to *Haran*, that Charræ famous for the defeat and death of Crassus. Passing the Euphrates, he at last, after various wanderings, settled in the Promised Land. The kings of the Pentapolis having revolted against Chedorlaomer, king of Elam (Elymais,) that monarch was obliged to take up arms against them, in order to preserve the fidelity of the adjoining states. He defeated the allied army and captured Lot, the nephew of Abraham, by whom he was shortly after rescued, 1913. Returning from his victory over the Elamites, he was met by Melchizedek, king of Salem, priest of the Most High, who blessed him and received in return a tithe of the spoil, as an offering to the God who had crowned the undertaking with success. But the piety of the patriarch was unable to avert the destruction of the Cities of the Plain, 1897. Jehovah rained down fire and brimstone from heaven, and the Dead Sea now covers the ruins of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, and Zeboim. On the birth of Isaac (1896), the mother urged Abraham, to drive out Hagar with the child Ishmael, which she had borne him, lest he should share the paternal heritage. The two exiles retired to the desert, where the youth married an Egyptian woman, and his descendants are, to this day, a living witness to the truth of the prophecy of the angel—*he will be a wild man, his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him*—Persians, Greeks and Romans, Mongols and Tartars, having vainly endeavored to subdue them. The Hejazite kings of Arabia, to whose dynasty Mohammed belonged, reckon the son of Hagar among their ancestors.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

EGYPT.—Invasion of the Shepherds.

GREECE.—1856, Kingdom of Argos founded by Inachus.

SHEPHERD KINGS.—The invasion of the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings is an event of great importance in Egyptian history, but

much uncertainty exists as to the period when it took place. We learn that, in the reign of Timaos (Thammuz), Egypt was invaded by a pastoral tribe, who, after subduing the lower country, extended their ravages to the Thebais, which, however, they could not reduce, and where a native dynasty long continued to reign. They are said to have made Memphis their capital, and to have established a fortified camp at Abaris (Pelusium,) in the Saitic nome, where they stationed 240,000 men. These invaders are represented on the monuments with tattooed limbs and skin garments, and as preserving their wild habits and rudeness until their expulsion. This event took place under the first of the eighteenth dynasty of Thebes, 260 years after the inroad. Amosis or Thoutmosis, raised the country from its prostrate state, and formed one compact kingdom with Thebes for its capital.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

SACRED HISTORY.—1837, *b.* Esau and Jacob—1728, Joseph in Egypt—1706, Israelites settled in Goshen.

EGYPT.—Foreign Intercourse.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

SACRED HISTORY.—1635, Death of Joseph.

GREECE.—The Pelasgi—Sicyon.

The settlement of the Jewish people in Egypt tended in some degree to recall them from their nomad state. The patriarch Jacob lived only seventeen years to enjoy the presence of his son Joseph, and witness the happiness of his family. He died in 1689 B. C., at the age of 147, blessing his children, and foretelling the birth of the Messiah from the race of Judah. His favorite son survived fifty-four years, and saw his descendants in the fourth generation. He expired in 1635, regretted by all Egypt, and with him terminates the history of the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2,369 years. In the division of the Promised Land, Ephraim and Manasseh, the sons of this patriarch, ranked as heads of tribes, on an equality with the eleven sons of Jacob.

GREECE.

The first settlers of Greece were Ionians, a *Pelasgic* race, who derived their name from Javan (Heb. *Ion,*) son of Japhet. He is mentioned in Genesis as among those by whom *the isles of the Gentiles were divided in their lands*, and Greece is called Javan several times in the sacred Scriptures. The *Hellenes*, if not an offshoot of the Pelasgians, were also of eastern origin, and by these two were the different states of the Archipelago originally formed. There was also a continual influx of the wandering

hordes of the north. Scythia then, as in latter times, supplied abundant streams of barbarians, who sought a milder climate and a more fertile soil than their own. These nomad tribes, like the Indians of America, subsisted on the produce of the chase or the wild fruits of the woods; but we are entirely ignorant of their history, manners and religion.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

SACRED HISTORY.—1581, Birth of Moses—Job.

GREECE.—1556, Cecrops—Deluge of Deucalion—Amphictyonic Council.

MOSES.—After the death of Joseph in 1635, the Israelites increased so rapidly in number and in strength as to excite the fears of the reigning monarch. The ordinary modes of diminishing the population proving inefficient, the *pharaoh* commanded all the male children to be slain as soon as born. The affection of Jochebed preserved her son Moses for three months, when the fear of discovery at last compelled her to expose him on the banks of the Nile, 1571. Here he was providentially seen and rescued by the king's daughter, Thermutis, who brought him up as her own child, and educated him in all the learning of her country. Having slain an Egyptian who was maltreating a Hebrew, he was compelled to flee for refuge into the land of Midian, near the Red Sea, 1531 B. C., where he resided forty years. While tending the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, in the desert, he received a summons from the Almighty to return into Egypt, and lead his chosen people from their land of bondage, 1491 B. C.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

SACRED HISTORY.—1491, Exodus—1451, Entry into Canaan.

EGYPT.—1473, Conquests of Sesostris.

PHŒNICIA.—Foreign Discovery and Trade.

GREECE.—Theseus—Court of Areopagus.—1493, Thebes; 1490, Sparta; 1404, Corinth Founded.

THE EXODUS.—Moses, after some hesitation to obey the divine commands, went with his brother Aaron to the court of Pharaoh, to deliver the solemn embassy of the Almighty. The monarch (Amenophis) in return, added to the sufferings of the Israelites; nor did he cease to afflict them until the ten plagues had wearied, though not convinced his haughty spirit. On the 15th *Nisan*, the Hebrew nation began their joyful march towards the Red Sea, 1491 B. C., each tribe in its proper station, advancing in battle-array. Scarcely had they begun their long journey, when the monarch repented his weakness, and hastily pursuing with a numerous army, overtook them in a narrow defile which opens

upon the Arabian Gulf. In their extremity, with the sea before them and implacable enemies behind, the people began to murmur, saying, *were there no graves in Egypt, that thou hast taken us away to die in the wilderness?* But Jehovah meditated a signal deliverance; the sea divided its waves before them; they passed through dryshod; while the returning waters buried Pharaoh's host, so that none remained to tell the dreadful tale. In the space of 215 years, God had so favored the descendants of Abraham, that from about 70 persons, the family of Jacob had increased to 600,000 fighting men, or a gross population of more than two millions.

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—1285, Deborah judges Israel—Sisera—1312, Ruth.
GREECE.—Minos.

JUDÆA.

JUDGES, 1443.–After the death of Joshua, a council of judges (*shophetim,*) with nearly the same authority as the consuls at Rome, the kings at Sparta, and the Carthaginian *suffetes*, was established to govern the people of Israel. Each city had its peculiar magistrates (*shoterim*) and ministers of justice to the number of twenty-three.

Their place of audience was at the *gates of the cities*, as being the most frequented spots. On Joshua's death the weak tribes became jealous of the stronger, and, as the high-priests had little political influence, the dread of foreign power alone kept them together.

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—1249, Gideon Judge.—1235, Jotham's Parable.
GREECE.—Pelopidæ.—1263. Argonauts—Theseus.—1230, Ninus founds the Assyrian Empire (Herodotus.)

JUDÆA.

This country was again under the iron rod of the oppressor, when Gideon, with a chosen band of 300 men, defeated a numerous army of Midianites by a most remarkable stratagem, 1245 B. C. During forty years he judged Israel, and at his death was succeeded by a natural son, Abimelech, who murdered his legitimate brothers, 1235.

Jotham alone of seventy escaped, and he indignantly upbraided the ungrateful Shechemites by the beautiful apologue of *the trees choosing a king*—the most ancient parable extant.

Shadoof—Raising water in Egypt.

Oriental Women on Camels

TWELFTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—1188, Jephtha's Vow.—1117, Death of Samson.
GREECE.—1184, Seige of Troy—Grecian Mythology—Greek Colonies.
INVENTIONS, &c.—Mariner's Compass in China—Buddhism introduced in India.

JUDÆA.

SAMPSON.—During the period of the seventh servitude, which lasted forty years, a new deliverer appeared in the son of Manoah, of the tribe of Dan. By the command of the angel who foretold his birth, he was specially consecrated to the Lord. As he grew in years, he increased in strength; and in various encounters he slew an immense number of Philistines, but fell at last by the artifices of Delilah. During his sleep, the locks on which his strength depended were shorn, and he awoke weak as another man. He again recovered vigor upon the growth of his hair, and proved his renewed powers by tearing down the two pillars which supported the roof of a temple, and burying 3000 Philistines, with himself, in one undistinguished ruin, 1117 B. C.

The accounts of Hercules, Rustam in Persia, and Antar in Arabia, seem based on that of Samson. Ancient traditions furnish us with many curious coincidences with the history of Samson's locks.

TENTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—975, Revolt of the Ten Tribes. Elijah and Elisha.—918, Ahab.
GREECE.—Homer and Hesiod flourished.
SYRIA.—940, Benhadad, king of Damascus.

JUDÆA.

REVOLT OF THE TEN TRIBES.—The kingdom was divided, ten tribes electing Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, who had been recalled from Egypt; Judah and Benjamin alone remained faithful to the lineal heir. The former, together with the tributary nations eastward to the Euphrates, formed the kingdom of ISRAEL, of which the capital was Samaria; while the two remaining tribes, with Philistia and Edon, composed that of JUDAH, 975 B. C.

NINTH CENTURY.

889, Translation of Elijah.—884, Jehu—Athaliah—Jonah, Hosea and Amos flourished.
GREECE.—884, Lycurgus—Iphitus in Elis.
MACEDONIA.—813, Caranus, First King.
CARTHAGE.—890, Dido emigrates from Phœnicia.

CARTHAGE.

DIDO.—890 B. C.—Carthage on the northern coast of Africa, was founded by Elisa, or Dido, sister of Pygmalion, king of Tyre, though others place its foundation so early as 1223 B C. It would be wrong to take the account transmitted to us in its literal sense. It is probable that political commotions in the mother city induced a party of the disaffected to emigrate, who proceeded to Africa, along whose northern coast Utica and other Phœnician colonies had already been settled. After the decease of Dido there is a void in the history of more than three centuries. In the time of Cyrus, Cambyses, and Darius, the republic was formidable by land and sea (550-480). About the same period they defeated a fleet of the Phoceans, then the most powerful maritime state. To the same epoch must be referred their great victories over their African neighbors, and the first treaty with Rome, 509 B. C.

MACEDONIA.

Towards the end of this century, a Hellenic colony from Argos, under Caranus (813,) settled in Emathia, and laid the feeble foundations of the Macedonian Empire. Its early history, however, is obscure, and little more is known than that its princes gradually extended their territory by subjecting or expelling the neighboring tribes. They were delivered from the Persian yoke, imposed in 510, by the victories of the Greeks; and their independence was restored by the battle of Platæa, 479, although it was not distinctly acknowledged by their former masters. It was scarcely considered a Grecian state until the reign of Philip, the father of Alexander.

EIGHTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—721, Captivity of the Ten Tribes—Isaiah, Habakkuk, Nahum.

GREECE.—776, First Olympiad.—743, First Messenian war.

ASSYRIA.—759, Sardinapalus, *d.*—747, Æra of Nabonassar.—714, Sennacherib.

ROME.—753, Foundation of Rome—Senate.

LYDIA.—727, Gyges.

Three empires shared the vast dominions of the successors of Ninus:—1, the Assyrian monarchy of Babylon, founded by Belesis, which, after lasting about 220 years, was conquered by Cyrus, 538 B. C.;—2, The ancient kingdom of the Ninevite Assyrians, perpetuated by Pul, and which in little more than 130 years, was reunited to Babylon;—3, The state of the Medes, indebted for its independence to Arbaces, and which, becoming monarchical under Deioces, continued about 220 years, and was at last united to the vast empire of Persia.

ROME.

ROMULUS, 753.—The founder of Rome had been a shepherd in his youth. After having restored his grandfather Numitor to the throne, he settled with some of his early companions, at a little distance from Alba, on the Palatine Hill, and probably on the ruins of a more ancient city. By making the new city an asylum for murderers and runaway slaves, the population increased. He established laws, divided the people into *two* classes, *Patricians* and *Pelebians*, and appointed a *senate*. At the close of a disastrous war with the Sabines, he was compelled to share his crown with Tatius, their king, though he soon became sole monarch again. After a reign of thirty-seven years, he was murdered by the senators, who, fearful of the revenge of the populace, gave origin to the report that he had been carried up to heaven, and a temple was erected to him on the Quirinal hill. Romulus had the good sense to adopt many Sabine customs. The Romans always imitated this example with respect to the nations they conquered, and it was not the least cause of their renown. No people, indeed, ever rose to pre-eminent greatness with smaller pretensions to originality. They were indebted to the Greeks for everything except their martial and republican spirit; which many of their laws, customs, and religious ceremonies, together with their system of notation, were borrowed from the Etruscans.

SEVENTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—698, Manasseh.—641, Josiah.—611, Egyptian War, 606, *The Captivity*.

ASSYRIA.—667, Nabuchodonosor.—656, Holofernes slain.—607, Nebuchadnezzar's Campaigns.

MEDIA AND PERSIA.—733, Deioces.—655, Phraoetes defeated at Ragau.—648, Scythian Invasion. *Zoroaster*.

EGYPT.—671, Dodecarchy.—656, Psammetichus.—617, Necho Africa circumnavigated.

—GREECE.—685, Second MessenianWar.—624, Draco—*Ephori*.

ROME.—667, Horatii and Curiatii.—640, Ancus Martius.—616, Tarquin the Elder.

Literature.—Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Daniel.—680, Tyrtæus.—600, Archilochus, Alcæus, Sappho, Epimenides.

SIXTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—536, End of the Captivity.—515, Second Temple built.

ASSYRIA and PERSIA. { 604, Nebuchadnezzar.—570, Loses his reason. 538, Belshazzar—End of the kingdom of Babylon. 561, Cyrus elected King.—559, Aids Cyaxares.—538. Babylon taken.—529, Cambyses.—521, Darius.

EGYPT.—594, Apries.—569, Amassis.—525, Psammenitus, last native king.

GREECE.—594, Solon, archon.—560, Pisistratus.—514, Harmodius and Aristogiton.

ROME.—578, Servius Tullius.—534, Tarquin II.—509, Consuls—Constitution of Rome.

CHINA.—550, Confucius born.

LITERATURE.—THE SEVEN WISE MEN; Mimnermus, Thespis, Æsop, Theognis, Pythagoras, Anacreon.

DISCOVERIES.—Geographical Maps; Terrestrial Globes, by Anaximander.—560, Marble employed (at Athens) for Statues.—540, Monochord, Terrestrial Revolution, by Pythagoras.—552, Corinthian Capital, by Callimachus.—520, Sun-dials, by Anaximenes of Miletus.

FIFTH CENTURY.

JUDÆA.—457, Ezra.—445, Nehemiah.—420, Malachi, *d.*

PERSIA.—499, Sardis burnt.—401, Retreat of the Ten Thousand.

GREECE.—490, Marathon.—480, Salamis.—471, Themistocles exiled.—466, Victory at the Eurymedon.—449, Pericles,—440, Samian War.—431, Peloponnesian War.—429, The Plague; Death of Pericles.—415, Sicilian Expedition.—405, Victory at Ægos-Potamos.—404, Death of Alcibiades.—403, Thrasybulus.

ROME.—509, Consuls.—498, Dictator, Titus Lartius.—493, Tribunes of the People.—486, Argrarian Law.—452, Decemvirs—Laws of the Twelve Tables.—Volscian and Veintine Wars.

CARTHAGE.—509, Treaty with Rome.—480, Defeat at Himera. 410, Sicilian Wars.

LITERATURE.—490, Pindar; 480, Æschylus and Sophocles; 444, Euripides, Herodotus; 429, Hippocrates, Lysias, Aristophanes, Thucydides, Socrates.

DISCOVERIES.—479, Mnemonics by Simonides; 441, Catapault, &c.; 437, Anatomy and Medicine by Hippocrates.

RETREAT OF THE TEN THOUSAND, 401.—Rapid and violent revolutions, with rebellions in the provinces, particularly in Egypt, 414, under Darius II. Nothus, led to the reign of Artaxerxes II. Mnemon, 405. He had scarcely ascended the throne when he was compelled to defend it against his brother, Cyrus the younger, governor of Asia Minor, who claimed the throne from being *the first born after his father's accession.* His army of 100,000 barbarians under Ariæus was reinforced by 13,000 Grecian volunteers, commanded by Clearchus. The hostile armies met at Cunaxa, about twenty leagues from Babylon, where Cyrus, engaging in battle with his brother, who had 120,000 men under his command, lost his life, 401. The Greeks maintained the rep-

utation of their country not only in this fight, but in that memorable retreat, in which, at the end of fifteen months, after having overcome every obstacle of nature, and triumphed over all the attacks of the nations on their route, they again beheld their native shores. The *Anabasis* of Xenophon, their general, has immortalized this unexampled march.

FOURTH CENTURY.

GREECE.—399, Death of Socrates,—394, Battle of Coronea.—387, Peace of Antalcidas.—371, Leuctra.—362, Mantinea.—338, Chæronea.—331, Arbela.—323, Alexander *d.*—312, Æra of the Seleucidæ.

ROME.—396, Veii taken.—390, Rome taken by the Gauls.—366, Plebian Consuls.—343, Samnite Wars.—321, Candine Forks.

LITERATURE, &c.—401, Xenophon; Ctesias; Isocrates, *b.* 436; Plato; Demosthenes; Aristotle; Epicurus; Menander.

DISCOVERIES.—360, Analysis, by Plato.—333, Encaustic Painting.—306, Sun-dial at Rome, by Parirus Cursor.—300, Colossus at Rhodes; Operation for cataract, by Herophilus.

THIRD CENTURY.

ROME.—280, Pyrrhus.—264, First Punic War.—256, Regulus in Africa.—218, Second Punic War.—216, Cannæ.—202, Zama.

GREECE.—280, Achæan League.—279, Gallic Invasion.—226, Cleomenes.—206, Philopœmen.

MACEDON.—264, Demetrius Poliorcetes.—286, Lysimachus.—221, Philip V.

EGYPT.—283, Ptolemy Philadelphus.—270, Septuagint Translation of the Hebrew Scriptures.—256, Parthia—Arsaces.

INVENTIONS, &C.—269, First silver money coined at Rome.—264, The Parian Chronicle.—263, Parchment.—250, Clepsydra.—220, Burning-glasses.

LITERATURE, &c.—Euclid, Archimedes, Theocritus, Manetho—Plautus, *d*, 183.

SECOND CENTURY.

ROME.—197, Battle of Cynoscephalæ.—190, Defeat of Antiochus the Great.—168, Battle of Pydna.—146, Corinth and Carthage burnt.—133, Fall of Numantia.—133 and 121, Gracchi.—111, Jugurthine War.—102, Cimbric War.

JUDÆA.—166, Judas Maccabæus.—130, Independent.—106, Aristobulus.

INVENTIONS, ETC.—190, Pumps by Hero of Alexandria.—'42, Procession of Equinoxes, Latitude and Longitude, Spherical Trigonometry, by Hipparchus.

LITERATURE.—Polybius, Aristarchus, Bion and Moschus, Ennius, Terence.

FIRST CENTURY.

ROME.—88, Social War.—Mithridatic War.—Marius and Sylla —73, Servile War.—63, Catiline's Conspiracy.—60, First Triumvirate.—48, Pharsalia.—31, Actium.—30, Egypt a Roman province:—27, Augustus Emperor.—A. M. 4004, BIRTH OF CHRIST.

JUDÆA.—68, Civil War between Hyrcanus II. and Aristobulus II.—63, Jerusalem taken by Pompey.—40, Herod, king of Judæa. —29, Murder of Mariamne.

INVENTIONS, &C.—63, Shorthand, by Cicero.—60, Flux and Reflux of the Tides, by Posidonius, who endeavors to measure the circumference of the Earth.—45, Calendar reformed, by Cæsar.—6, Lunar Cycle or Golden Number.

LITERATURE, &C.—Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Cicero, Cæsar, Sallust, Livy, Vitruvius, Nepos, Tibullus, Propertius, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo.

CHRISTIAN ERA.

FIRST CENTURY.

ROME.—9, Defeat of Varus.—TWELVE CÆSARS.—79, First Eruption [recorded] of Vesuvius.

BRITAIN.—43, Claudius in Britain.—85, Agricola.

JUDÆA.—8, Archelaus banished.—41, Herod Agrippa.—Roman Procurators.—70, Jerusalem destroyed.

THE CHURCH.—30, Crucifiction of CHRIST.—40, Name of Christians.—64, First Persecution.—66, Martydom of St. Peter and St. Paul.—95, Second Persecution.

INVENTIONS, &C,—16, Introduction of Silk Dresses by Tiberius.—60, Loadstone discovered.

LITERATURE, &C.—Phædrus, Celsus, Q. Curtius, Persius, Plutarch, Epictetus, Lucan, Martial, Juvenal, Seneca, Quinctilian, Tacitus, Petronius, the two Plinys, Valerius Flaccus, Josephus, Dioscorides.

HISTORY OF THE CHURCH.

THE MESSIAH.—During a season of profound peace, in the reign of Augustus, when there was a general expectation that some great personage was about to appear, the time arrived for the redemption of the human race—promised at the fall of man, predicted by all the prophets, typified by all the ceremonies of the ancient law, and earnestly desired by all just men. In the "fullness of time" JESUS CHRIST was born at Bethlehem. He escaped from the murderous rage of Herod, and for nearly thirty years lived an obscure life at Nazareth. At length, entering on his public ministry, he began to teach, in the reign of Tiberius, throughout all Judæa, confirming his divine mission by the purity of his life, the sublimity of his doctrines, and his miraculous powers. The Jews, who had looked for an earthly conqueror, refused to listen to the lowly Galilean, and procured his condemnation and execution as a criminal, 3d April, A. D. 30.

After the resurrection and ascension of our Saviour, the Christian religion spread rapidly under the ministry of the apostles and their converts. They preached throughout all the Roman

empire the sublime truths revealed to them by their divine Master, and established churches in three quraters of the world. The name of Christian was first used at Antioch, A. D. 40. The four gospels contain the history of the Redeemer's life and doctrines, and were written in the order in which they stand, between A. D. 37 and 98.

SECOND CENTURY.

ROME.—96, Nerva.—98, Trajan.—117, Adrian.—138–180, The Antonines.—180, Commodus.—193, Didius Julianus.

THE CHURCH.—Third and Fourth Persecutions.

DISCOVERIES.—Astronomical System of Ptolemy.

LITERATURE, &C.—Lucian; Ptolemy, Justin Martyr; Apuleius; Suetonius; Florus; Justin; Symmachus; The Targum and Mischnah.

THIRD CENTURY.

ROME.—193, Septimius Severus.—211, Caracalla.—218, Heliogabalus.—222, Alexander Severus.—235, Maximin.—The Thirty Tyrants.—273, Aurelian defeats Zenobia.—284, Diocletian.—The Empire invaded by Goths, Franks and Germans.

PALMYRA.—Odenathus and Zenobia.

PERSIA.—226, The Sassanides.—260, Sapor captures Valerian.

THE CHURCH.—Persecutions.

LITERATURE, &C.—Dion Cassius, Origen, Tertullian, Cyprian, Longinus.

FOURTH CENTURY.

ROME.—306, Constantine. 330, Constantinople.—361, Julian.—364, Division of the Empire between Valens and Valentinian.—378, Battle of Adrianople.—379, Theodosius the Great.—391, Eugenius, Emperor.

THE CHURCH.—Establishment of Christianity.—318. Arian Heresy.—325, Nicene Council.—390, Theodosius prohibits Paganism.

INVENTIONS, &C.—385, Saddles.—398, Aerometers by Hypatia.—400, Gothic Architecture (?).

LITERATURE.—Eusebius, Chrysostom, L. Lactantius, Augustin, Claudian.

FIFTH CENTURY.

FOUNDATION OF MODERN STATES.

ROME { *Eastern Empire.*—395, Alaric.—408, Theodosius II.—420, Persian War.—450, Marcian.—457, Leo, the Great,—491, Anastasius.
Western Empire.—408, Britain relinquished.—410. Visigoths at Rome.—Vandals, Alani, and Suevi.—414, Franks, Burgundian, &c., in Gaul. 452, Attila.—476, FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE—Odoacer and Theodoric.

SEPULCHRAL MONUMENTS AND MUMMY-PITS OF ANCIENT EGYPT.

VENICE.—452, Commencement of the Republic.
GAUL.—420, Pharamond.—428, Clodion.—448, Merovens.—486, Clovis.
THE CHURCH.—Monachism—Conversion of the Barbarians.

DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.

Each empire was now divided into two prefectures; these into two dioceses, and subdivided into provinces. The cities with their dependencies formed the lowest division in the political scale.

	Prefectures.	Dioceses.	Provinces.
EASTERN EMPIRE.	I EAST.	1. East,	3 Palestines, Phœnicia.
			2 Syrias, Cyrus, Arabia.
			2 Cilicias, Mesopotamia.
		2. Egypt.	Egypt Proper, Thebais.
			2 Lybias, Agustamnica.
		3. Asia.	Pamphilia, Hellespont.
			Lydia, Lycaonia, 2 Phrygias.
			Lycia, Caria, the Isles.
		4. Pontus,	2 Galatias, Bithynia, Pontus.
			2 Cappadocias, Paphlagonia.
			2 Armenias, Helenopontus, Polemonium.
		5. Thrace	Europe, Thrace, Rhodope.
			Hæmus, 2d Mœsia, Scythia.
	II ILLYRIA (Eastern)	1. Macedonia.	Achæa, Macedonia.
			Crete, Thessaly.
			Epirus (old and new).
		2. Dacia.	Dacia (*Interior* and *Ripuarian*).
			1st. Mœsia, Dardania, Prœvalis.
WESTERN EMPIRE.	ITALY.	1. Italy (*subdivided into the Dioceses of Italy and Rome*).	Venice, Liguria, 2 Picentums.
			Tuscany and Umbria, Campania.
			Sicily, Apulia, Calabria.
			Lucania and Bruttium, Cottian Alps.
			2 Rhætias, Samnium, Valeria, Sardinia, Corsica.
		2. Illyria (*Western*).	2 Pannonias, Savia.
			Dalmatia, Noricum.
		3. Africa.	Tripolis, Byzacium.
			Numidia, 2 Mauritanius.
	II. GAUL	1 Spain.	Bœtica, Lusitania, Galicia.
			Tarraconensis, Carthaginiensis.
			Balearic Isles, Tingitania (*Africa*).
		2. Gaul.	Narbonnensis (2), Vienne.
			Alps (*Maratime and Pennine*).
			3 Aquitaines, 5 Lyonnias.
			Belgica (2), Germany (2).
		3. Britain.	2 Britains
			Maxima and Flavia, } Cæsariensis, Valentia.

THE HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FROM THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE, A. D. 476, TO THE ERA OF THE REFORMATION, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

The Roman Empire had recovered under Theodosius its unity and greatness; but after the death of this prince it began to decline, and finally disappeared in the fall of the capital of Italy. This crisis was brought on as much by accidental circumstances, as by the concurrence and reciprocal action of permanent causes. The despotism of the emperors, a natural consequence of political anarchy and military power, preserved the characters of its twofold origin, namely, corruption and violence. The Antonines had vainly endeavored to restore national and political virtue: the populace having descended to the lowest degree of abasement, while the philosophy of Epicurus had fixed an indelible stain on the higher ranks. Christianity could alone arrest the almost general licentiousness; but the designs of Providence still exposed it to fiery trials, and its day of triumph had not yet arrived. Diocletian, by his divisions of the sovereignty, and Constantine, by the removal of the seat of empire to Byzantium, prepared the way for the two separate monarchies of the East and the West, and opened the road into Italy for the barbarians. The appearance of the Huns in the north of Europe drove the savage tribes of Germany across the Roman frontiers. These warlike nations braved the power of the emperors under the walls of Rome and Constantinople; imposed on them burdensome tributes; entered in whole tribes into the legions; and finally dismembering half of the empire, broke up the whole social state with its imperfect civilization, to establish on its ruins the foundations of the existing political system.

Of the ten centuries embraced in that period of history entitled the Middle Ages, five were occupied by the restless movements of the various barbarians, who were partially checked by the strong hand of Charlemagne. In the sixth age, that is, about A. D. 1000, repose and silence pervaded all Europe; the decay of literature and civilization extended gradually; while institutions laws, customs, and languages began to assume their local peculiarities. Amidst the minute territorial divisions that took place,

there was still found one bond of unity in the church, whose members kept up a communication with the remotest districts, all preaching the same doctrines, animating with the same spirit the almost innumerable societies throughout which they were scattered, and combining all nations in one common and holy enterprise. It was during the crusades that the representatives of every state in Europe, assembling around the tomb of our Saviour, recognized each other as brethren. After the Holy Wars the greater communities began to be remodelled, as their respective sovereigns issued victorious from their contention with feudalism. Then began the rancorous struggle between France and England, the rise of the Spanish monarchies, the destruction of the imperial authority in Germany, the brief splendor and fall of the Italian republics, the revolutions of the Sclavonic and Scandinavian states, and finally, the fall of Constantinople, A. D. 1453, which, by driving the learned Greeks into the centre and west of Europe, contributed in a remarkable degree to the Reformation.

SIXTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—527, Justinian.—532, *Nika*.—557, Earthquake in Syria.—565, Belisarius *d.*

PERSIA.—528, First War.—531, Nushirvan.—532, Perpetual Treaty.—540, Second War.—590, Varanes (Bahram).—591, Chosroes II.

ITALY.—493, Theodoric.—552, End of Gothic Empire.—569, Lombards.—584, Autharis.

FRANCE.—511, Clovis *d.*—Salic Law.—558, Clotaire I.

SPAIN.—507, Visigoths enter Spain.

BRITAIN.—542, King Arthur *d.*..586, Heptarchy.—596, Saxons converted.

THE CHURCH.—514, Religious War in Constantinople.—519, Jewish Persecution.—578, Pelagius, the *infallible*.—590, Gregory I.

LITERATURE.—580, Latin ceases to be spoken.—Stobæus; Agathias; Cassiodorus; Bœthius; Priscian; Journades; Gregory of Tours.

SEVENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—602, Phocas.—610, Heraclius.—622, Chosroes defeated.—672, Constantinople besieged by the Saracens.—685, Justinian II.

PERSIA.—618, Chosroes, *d.*

ARABIA.—570, Mohammed born.—622, HEGIRA.—*Koran; Sonna*.—634, Omar.—640, Alexandrian Library burnt.—660, OMMIADES.

ITALY.—643, Lombard Code.—697, Venice—First sole Doge, Anafesto.

FRANCE.—613, Clotaire,—678, Pepin.—688, Sluggard Kings—Mayors of the Palace.

SPAIN.—600, Christian Religion Introduced.

THE CHURCH.—606, Papal Supremacy; *Œcumenical*—Image Worship.

LITERATURE.—Fortunatus; Isidore of Seville; Gregory the Great.

INVENTIONS.—Quills for writing.—Chess in India.

MOHAMMED, A. D. 570, sprung from the tribe of Koreish and the family of Hashem, the hereditary guardians of the Caaba, was the only son of Abdallah and the Jewess Amina. In early life he was bereaved of his parents; and after spending many years in the Syrian caravans, at the age of twenty-five he entered the service of the rich widow Cadijah, whom he afterwards married. His person was majestic; and, with a countenance that charmed all beholders, he possessed no common vein of eloquence. He was not less an enthusiast than an imposter; and from his early youth had been in the habit of retiring to solitary caverns for the purpose of meditation, where he formed that mighty scheme of fraud, which, under the name of *Islamism*, he at length proclaimed to the world, 609. His wife and one or two others of his family were his first converts; three years elapsed before he had increased their number to fourteen. Twelve years had passed before they were augmented to six score, when the hostility of the Koreish compelled him to leave Mecca. This "flight" to Yatreb, under the name of the HEGIRA, became the memorable epoch of Mohammedan nations, dating from Friday, 16th July, A. D. 622. Acclamations of loyalty and devotion hailed the entry of the prophet into the city, which afterwards received the name of Medina, or the City of the Prophet. Here he began to exercise at once the regal and sacerdotal authority, and to be worshipped as a superior being. "I have seen," said an astonished ambassador from Mecca, "Chosroes of Persia, and the Cæsar of Rome, but never did I behold a king among his subjects like Mohammed among his companions." War was soon declared against all infidels, and the doctrine proclaimed that the sins of every one who fell in battle would be forgiven. Blinded by prosperity, he had the audacity to summon the most powerful monarchs of the earth to embrace Islamism; and we are told that when a Roman magistrate in Syria put to death one of his ambassadors, he did not hesitate to fall upon an army of 30,000 men with a small body of undisciplined troops. With an inconsiderable force he attacked the Koreish, and defeated them in several battles, 625. Four years afterwards, Mecca submitted to his arms, and the whole peninsula shortly after yielded to the

"apostle of God." Nor was the ambition of Mohammed confined to the narrow limits of Arabia, for he was on the point of entering on a new career, when a languishing disease recalled him from the Syrian frontiers. Perceiving the approach of death he boldly submitted his past life to the scrutiny of his people, saying, "If there be any man whom I have unjustly scourged, I submit my own back to the lash." At the age of sixty-three, the great impostor was removed from the earth, in 632. The caliphs, as his successors were called, in less than one hundred years, spread their conquests and their creed, from India to the Atlantic Ocean—over Persia, Syria, Egypt, Africa and Spain.

THE KORAN.—The religious doctrines of Mohammed are contained in the Koran. The book, for such is its title, is filled with stories from the Old Testament and parables borrowed from the New. He asserted that it was brought in fragments from heaven by the angel Gabriel, and appealed to the pure classical style of the work as a proof of its divine origin. It comprises a mass of tales, visions, discourses, laws, precepts, and counsels, in which truth and falsehood, the sublime and the ridiculous, meet side by side. Each *sure* (chapter) bears the superscription—"In the name of the kind and merciful God." The first verse is always preceded by three mystical initial characters, whose meaning the Moslem theologians dare not penetrate. Mistaken in his opinions of the Trinitarian doctrine, and deluded by the image-worship of the Eastern Christians, the author declaims often against their polytheism and idolatry. "In what consists Islamism?" asked an angel in the guise of a Bedouin. "To profess," replied Mohammed, "that there is but one God, and that I am his prophet; to observe strictly the hours of prayer; to give alms; to fast in the month of Ramadan; and to make the pilgrimage to Mecca." "It is so in truth," said Gabriel, making himself known.

EIGHTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—717, Leo III.—Saracens at Constantinople. —726, Iconoclast War.—797, Empress Irene.

ARABIA.—711, Northern Africa and Spain subdued.—749, Abbassides.—786, Haroun al Raschid.

SPAIN.—711, Arabians in Spain.—755, Independent Caliphate.

ITALY.—715, Pope Gregory II.—774, End of Lombard Kingdom.—795, Leo III., first Bishop of the West.—728, Luitprand takes Ravenna.—749, Astolphus.

FRANCE.—714, Charles Martel.—732, Victory of Tours.—752, Carlovingian Dynasty—Pepin.—768, Charlemagne.

CHURCH.—720, Dionysian or Vulgar Era introduced.—769, Worship of Images.

THE WORLD IN THE TIME OF CHARLEMAGNE. END OF THE EIGHTH CENTURY.

WESTERN EMPIRE.

FRANCE.—Charlemagne possessed nearly all France, a great part of Germany, the half of Italy, part of Spain, and was the arbiter of the remainder of the West. The language of the Franks was still Teutonic, and continued so until the middle of the ninth century.

EASTERN EMPIRE.

Irene, stained with the blood of her son, reigned at Constantinople, and administered justice from the Bosphorus to the Adriatic. Tottering on a throne never free from the violence of rebellion and fanaticism, pressed on the north by the Bulgarians, attacked in different quarters by the Mohammedans, this celebrated woman, an extraordinary mixture of great virtues and greater crimes, of talent and weakness, still preserved the empire.

EMPIRE OF THE CALIPHS.

Haroun al Raschid was master of great part of Asia and all the northern coast of Africa. He was obeyed from the Imaus to Mount Atlas.

SECONDARY POWERS.

DENMARK resisted the ambitious designs of Charlemagne; and Godfrey, while he closed the entrance to this peninsula against the troops of the Frank conqueror, sent forth from NORWAY those swarms of warriors which made successive descents upon the Western Empire.

SWEDEN and RUSSIA were as yet insignificant powers; and POLAND, already become an elective monarchy, was of little importance.

BOHEMIA was the prey of the barbarous Sclavonians, whom the thirst of plunder had attracted in Germany. The Huns, successors of the ferocious people who had devastated Europe, settled at last in Pannonia, from which country they attacked the frontiers of the Western Empire. Under the name of the Avars they carried terror to the gates of Constantinople.

SPAIN presented a great battle-field for the Moors and Christians. The latter, though inferior to their enemies in number, riches and knowledge, were more warlike and united; and, by unwearied courage and constancy, gradually enlarged their boundaries.

The SOUTH OF ITALY was disputed by the Saracens and Greeks.

ROME, apparently submissive to Charlemagne, favored the popes, who constantly endeavored to extend their influence, temporal and spiritual.

VENICE, placed between two powerful empires, affected to recognize the sovereignty of the one which was too weak to be feared, and thus avoided the yoke of the other.

ENGLAND was about to begin her glorious career. The numerous states into which the country was divided were gradually united to the kingdom of the West Saxons.

NINTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—813, Leo the Armenian.—842, Michael III.—867, Macedonian Dynasty.—886, Leo VI.

ARABIA.—800, The Aglabites.—813, Almamon.—841, Turkish Guard.—870, Motamed—Mohammedan heresies.

SPAIN.—801, Barcelona captured by the Franks.—866, Alphonso the Great.—Moorish literary Era.

FRANCE.—800, Charlemagne, Emperor.—814, Louis the Debonaire.—840, Charles the Bald.—843, Treaty of Verdun.—887, Charles the Fat, dep.—888, Eudes.—842–886, Norman Ravages.

GERMANY.—817, Louis.—846–874 Sclavonian Incursions.—881, Charles the Fat.—888, Arnulph.—899, Louis IV, the Child.

ITALY.—817, Bernard *d.*—844, Louis II.—893, Berenger of Friuli.—896, Arnulph, Emperor.

BRITAIN.—800, Egbert.—832, Danish Invasions.—872, Alfred the Great.—871–878, Battles of Wilton and Edindon.—900, Death of Alfred.—Anglo-Saxon Constitution.

CHURCH.—854, Pope Joan (Benedict II.)—861, Greek Schism—Saint Worship.—867, Adrian II.

TENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—912, Constantine VII.—919, Romanus I.—963, Nicephorus II.—969, John Zimisces.

ITALY.—Papal Disorders.—962. Otho crowned Emperor.—990, Crescentius.

FRANCE.—912, Normans established by Treaty.—915, Feudal Aristocracy complete.—987, HUGH CAPET.

GERMANY.—911, Saxon Line.—919, Henry the Fowler.—936, Otho I.—955, Battle of Augsburg.

BRITAIN.—901, Edward the Elder.—925, Athelstan.—937, Dunstan.

SPAIN.—912, Abdalrahman's Conquests—University of Cordova.—932, Madrid taken by the Christians.

ARABIAN EMPIRE.—936, Mohammed Emir al Omra.—Fatimites in Egypt.

CHURCH.—999, Pope Sylvester II. (Gerbert)—Odo of Cluny.—Penance.

INVENTIONS.—Coats of Arms; 1000, Arabic Numerals; Watches.

LEARNED MEN.—Suidas, philosopher.—Gerbert (Pope Sylvester II.)—Olympiodorus.

THE WORLD AT THE END OF THE TENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—At the end of the eighth century the known world was under the control of three great monarchies,—the *East*, the *West*, and the *Caliphate*. Of these, one only now remained, and the Eastern Empire, lying between the Saracens and Franks, was obliged to have recourse to the assistance of the latter, and was often tributary to the former. It still, however, maintained considerable power, though but a shadow of what it had been, and was a continual prey to civil dissensions and external war.

THE CALIPHATE was parcelled out into a number of petty states, leaving scarcely a trace of its existence except in the pomp which still surrounded the rulers as ministers of religion.

THE FRANK KINGDOM, at one period the terror of the West, existed in several different sovereignties founded upon its ruins, of which the chief were the kingdoms of France and Germany. These two states at first sight present an equality of force which disappears on a closer examination.

FRANCE was exhausted by anarchy and tyranny; each province had its independent sovereign, duke or count, one of whom (Hugh Capet) violently seized the crown. Thus we see a king of Burgundy, a duke of Paris or of France, dukes of Aquitaine, Normandy, and Brittany; counts of Champagne, Flanders, Toulouse, and Anjou,—all of whom reigned as independent princes in their own territories. Under this crowd of masters, mutually jealous of each other and continually at war, the people were always suffering and enslaved. They recognized a sort of hereditary chief, upon whom they conferred the title of king; but this ruler, without authority, money or arms, was always at the mercy of his powerful vassals.

GERMANY was as extensive as France, and its nobles were scarcely less numerous. The sovereignty was elective, but the electors, while they reserved the honor of choosing the common master, had the good sense to surrender part of their privileges to give him more authority. Hence the king had fiefs at his disposal, officers at his command, and armies to execute his orders.

SPAIN was but little changed. The North, occupied by the Christians, was perpetually at war with the Moors of the South. In both the states were numerous and feeble; but the former always gained ground, while the Saracens, equally brave and enlightened, were weakened by civil dissensions.

VIEW ON THE NILE

ENGLAND was entirely changed. The seven, or rather eight, little kingdoms were now united into a single monarchy; but its powers were still enfeebled by the divisions of the Danish and Saxon inhabitants, who made the island a theatre of revolution and bloodshed.

ITALY, which presented the spectacle of cities overthrown, was oppressed by tyrants, and ruined by anarchy. Venice alone, separated from all others by its peculiar situation and policy, enjoyed a period of calmness and prosperity.

ROME continued a rising and ambitious power, which threatened to overthrow the ascendency of the Germans. The papal territories were of small size, but no prince had a more extensive power than the pope; by his dominion over men's consciences he completed the great work of a spiritual monarchy.

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—1028, Romanus III.—Bulgarian Invasion.—1057, COMNENI—1081, Anna Comnena—Varangian Guards.

ITALY.—1046, Norman Kingdom.—1057, Robert Guiscard—Italian Republics.

GERMANY.—1024, Conrad II.—Franconian House.—1073, Investitures—Saxon Wars.

FRANCE.—1031, Henry I.—1060, Philip I.—1095, Synod of Clermont.

SPAIN.—1080, New Castile recovered.—1081, Kingdom of Portugal.—The Cid.

ARABIAN EMPIRE.—1038, Togrul-Beg—Seljukians.—1050, Invasion of Armenia.—1063, Alp Arslan.—1074, Malak Shah—Gelalæan Era.—1076, Jerusalem taken by the Turks.

BRITAIN.—1002, Massacre of the Danes.—1017, Danish Dynasty.—1041, Edward the Confessor.—1066, Norman Conquest. 1080, Domesday Book.—1087, William Rufus.

CHURCH.—1027, Truce of God.—1038, Benedict IX. deposed. 1073, Gregory VII.—Investitures—Cistertians and Carthusians—The Holy Lance.—1096, First Crusade.

CELEBRATED MEN.—Ferdousi, *d.* 1020; Avicenna; Guido of Arezzo.

STATE OF THE WORLD AT THE EPOCH OF THE CRUSADES, FROM 1096 TO 1273.

ROME and GERMANY were the dominant powers of the West: both assumed the right of creating kings, to which the former added that of deposing them. The quarrel of investitures, begun by Henry IV. and Gregory VII., set Europe in flames. The

nobles took this opportunity of securing their independence; anarchy reigned in the cities; and the fields were ravaged by undisciplined bands of armed men.

FRANCE began to assume a more tranquil position, the number of states being greatly diminished; but there still remained several powerful vassals. The Dukes of Normandy, become more formidable since the conquest of England, had subjected the sovereigns of Brittany; and the Dukes of Aquitaine reigned over the vast territory lying between the Loire and the Pyrenees, the Cevennes and the Ocean. The greater part of Languedoc obeyed the Counts of Toulouse; those of Flanders added to their possession of that fertile country the submission of their neighbors; and the Counts of Champagne enjoyed that rich part of France which still bears the name. The Dukes of Burgundy, attached to the monarchy by the closest ties of blood, governed from the banks of the Loire to the Straits of Dover.

In SPAIN two kings were the terror of the Moors: Sancho, who united Navarre to Aragon; and Alphonzo of Castile, who gradually extended his southern frontier. Meanwhile the new Count of Portugal planted the banner of Christianity on the Banks of the Tagus.

ENGLAND, under the resolute conqueror, William, was at once oppressed by his exactions, and strengthed by his prudence.

Bohemia increased by the conquest of Poland, became a remarkable power, and sided with the Emperor, who had conferred the regal title on its chiefs. *Hungary*, in a weaker state, supported the interests of the pope, who had given its princes a crown. *Poland* was one wide scene of confusion, under dukes without talent and without authority. *Sweden*, *Denmark* and *Russia* were still in obscurity. *Apulia*, *Calabria* and *Sicily*, reunited under the warlike Normans, were respected in the West, being at once the terror of the Greek Empire, and the protectors of Italy.

THE GREEK EMPIRE, long tending toward its fall, and undermined by all the evils which can destroy a state, was still preserved by the extreme prudence and sagacity of *Alexius Comnenus*.

Venice and Genoa were the only maritime powers of the West; but rivals in navigation and commerce, they began to view each other with jealousy, and to nourish in secret the seeds of those quarrels which eventually proved fatal to both.

The *Caliphs* of Bagdad were deprived of all but their sacredotal power; their empire was under the dominion of the TURKS. Five thrones in Asia were filled by these warriors:—1, Persia, whose sultan reigned supreme from Armenia to the Indus;—2, Antioch and Syria;—3, Damascus and Palestine;—4, Cilicia and the adjacent provinces;—5, Nice, the seat of Soliman, governor of Bithynia.—The *Caliphs of Cairo* with difficulty maintained themselves upon the thrones of Egypt; the *Miramolins* of Africa

were subdued by the Kings of Morocco, who protected the Saracen power in Spain, and were the greatest obstacle to the Castilian monarchs.

TWELFTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—1118, Armenia recovered.—1143, Manuel I. —1185, House of Angelo.—Mourzoufle.

THE EAST.—1117, Sangiar.—1118, Knights of St. John of Jerusalem—Knights Templars.—1127, Attabeks.—1171, SALADIN. 1187, Jerusalem Taken by Saladin.—1191, Crusaders take Acre.—1191, Old Man of the Mountain.

ITALY.—1144, Arnold of Brescia.—1158, Diet of Roncaglia.—Podesta.—1174, Battle of Legnano.—Guelfs and Ghibellines.—1183, Treaty of Constance.

GERMANY—1122, Concordat.—1138, Swabian Line—Guelfs and Ghibellines.—1152, Barbarossa.—1194, Conquest of Naples.

FRANCE.—1108, Rise of Civil Corporations.—1113, Wars with England begun.—1180, Philip Augustus.—Parliament.

SPAIN.—Alphonzo VI. of Castile.—1139, Alphonzo, first king of Portugal.—1150, Commoners in the Cortes.—Aragon.—Military Orders.

BRITAIN.—1100, Henry Beauclerc—First Charter.—1135, Stephen.—1138, Battle of the Standard.—1154, Plantaganets.—1164, Constitutions of Clarendon.—1172, Invasion of Ireland.—1189, Richard Cœur de Lion.

CHURCH.—1154, Adrian IV.—Abbey of Fontevraud.—The Carmelites.—1147, Second Crusade.—1189, Third Crusade.

LITERATURE.—Anna Comnena.—Eustathius.—Chroniclers in England.—Abelard *d.*—Bernard of Clairvaux, *d.*—Peter the Lombard.—University of Cambridge.

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—1204, Latin Princes.—1259, Second Greek Empire—Michael Palæologus.—1274, Union of the Churches.

GERMANY.—1212, Frederick II.—Papal Disputes.—Crusade.—1241, Hanse Towns.—1273, RUDOLPH of Hapsburg.

ITALY.—Italian Republics—The Visconti.—1258, 1293, Venetian Wars.—1282, SICILIAN VESPERS.

FRANCE.—1214, Battle of Bouvines.—1226, Louis IX.—Parliament begun.—1268, Pragmatic Sanction.—1285, Philip le Bel. —1302, States General—ALBIGENSES.—1302, Rout of Courtray.

BRITAIN.—1199, John.—1215, THE GREAT CHARTER.—1265, First Parliament.—1283, Conquest of Wales.—1297, WALLACE.

SPAIN.—1212, Battle of Tolosa.—1252, Alphonzo X.—*Siete Partidas.*

THE EAST.—1205, Affghan Dynasty, India.—Mamelukes.—1206, GENGHIS KHAN.—1279, Conquest of China, by Kublai Kahn.—1300, Ottomans in Bithynia.

CHURCH.—Mendicant Friars.—1209, The Inquisition—The Albigenses.

INVENTIONS.—1270, Glass Mirrors.—1253, Linen first made in England.—1299, Spectacles at Pisa.

CELEBRATED MEN.—Aquinas.—R. Bacon.—Saadi—Duns, Scotus—Marco Polo.

RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES.

Des Michaels, examining the influences of the Crusades, classifies them under the following heads:

1. *Immediate Effect.*—Europe was saved from Turkish invasion at a period when she would have been ill able to resist it, although she purchased this benefit and short repose at a great price of blood and treasure.

2. *Effect on the Church.*—The popes augmented their spiritual and temporal power. They brought under their supremacy the patriarchs of Antioch and Jerusalem, and strengthened the links of the hierarchy.

3. *Political Effect.*—This was shown, *1st*, Among the princes, who all, with the exception of the emperors, found means of enlarging their domains, and increasing their authority; *2nd* Among the nobility, who suffered in power and riches, but were gainers in honorary distinctions. The orders of knight-hood established in the East reflected their splendor over Europe and were imitated in all Christain states. Tournaments, a recent introduction, charmed the West by representing the exploits of the Holy War; the combatants from beyond the seas came to display, in the various courts, the magnificence of the East; while coats of arms became necessary as distinctive marks, and family names were adopted and transmitted from sire to son.

4. *Effect on Commerce and Industry.*—The art of navigation made important progress, owing to the frequent voyages, to the great profits derived from them, and to the practices borrowed from the pilots of the Levant. By opening a wider field to speculation, and by facilitating exchange, commerce derived the same advantages as nautical science. Productions of nature and art, hitherto unknown in the West, brought new enjoyments, and called forth fresh industry. The maritime cites that engrossed the commerce of the East, attracted to them most of the wealth of Europe, and several of them became powerful republics. Hence the prosperity of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, of Barcelona and Marselles. Hence, too, the wealth and activity of the Flemish towns, which served as the medium of exchange between the North and South, between the ports of the Mediterranean and the towns

of the Hanseatic league. Agriculture was also greatly benefited by the introduction of the mulberry, Turkey-wheat the sugar-cane, and other plants.

5. *Effect on Knowledge.*—General civilization was advanced by new international relations, and the progress of science and literature. Ideas of honor and courtesy spread from chivalry into society generally, softening the public manners, and ennobling, in some respect, the enfranchised serfs, who were indebted for most of their wealth and liberty to the crusades.

New and sublime subjects were laid open to the poetic genius, which, however, rarely employed them with advantage. Still talent was honored, and the warriors, not satisfied with encouraging the versifiers who celebrated their exploits, became their own bards.

A peculiar character was impressed on poetry, and thus arose the romance of chivalry and the songs of the troubadours. Hence was breathed the first harmony into the various dialects of modern Europe.

The advances made by the sciences of geography, history, and medicine, were important in giving a new impulse to geographical research and adventure.

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE.—1341, Cantacuzene.—1355, Great Earthquake.—1391, Manuel II.

THE EAST.—1310, Knights of St. John at Rhodes.—1326, Rise of the Ottoman Power—Janizaries.—1370, Tamerlane.—1389, Bajazet.—1402, Battle of Angora.

GERMANY.—1315, Battle of Morgarten.—1338, Union of Rense.—1347, Charles IV.—1356, Golden Bull.—1378, Wenceslaus, Emperor.—1386, Battle of Sempack.

ITALIAN PENINSULA.—The Visconti.—1320, Castruccio Castracani.—1342, Joan I.—1347, Rienzi.—1355, Faliero expelled. 1378, War of Chioggia.

FRANCE.—1302, Defeat at Courtray—Papal Quarrels.—1307, Templars abolished.—Salic Law.—1346, Battle of Cressy; 1356, of Poitiers.—1358, *The Jacquerie.*—1364, Charles V.

BRITAIN.—1314, Battle of Bannockburn.—1346, The Black Prince.—1371, The Stuarts.—1381, Wat Tyler.—1399, House of Lancaster—Henry IV.

SPANISH PENINSULA—1340, Battle of Tarifa: Cannons first used.—1350, Peter the Cruel.—1368, Henry of Trastamare.—1385, John of Portugal.

CHURCH.—1360, John Wickliffe.—1378, Great Schism of the West—Lollards—Bianchi.

INVENTIONS.—1306, The Mariner's Compass—Linen Paper—Cannons.—1330, Notes of music.—1360, Metal-drawing; Pins.—1380, Playing Cards—Gun-powder used.

LITERATURE, &c.—1300, Cimabue; 1336, Ghiotto, Painter—1321 Dante, Poet; 1343, Occam, Theologian. 1374, Petrarch, Poet; 1375, Boccacio, Novelist; Hafiz, Persian Poet; 1400, Chaucer, Poet; 1452, Gower, Poet, Froissart, Historian.

INVENTIONS, ETC.

THE MARINER'S COMPASS.—In this century many new inventions, by seconding the exertions of genius, accelerated the progress of knowledge and civilization. The chief of these were the construction of the mariner's compass, and the manufacture of linen paper. The Chinese were acquainted with the polarity of the magnetic needle so early as 1121; and they assign the invention of the compass to 1108 B. C. This instrument was probably introduced into Europe by the Saracens; but only came into general use at the end of this century. The pretentions of Flavio Gioia of Almafi have been long detected.; indeed it is doubtful if such a person ever existed. A more fearless spirit of maritime adventure soon arose, and its fruits in the next century were the discovery of the New World.

LINEN PAPER.—The revival of learning in the fourteenth century called for cheaper materials than the parchment in general use. Paper made from cotton appears to have been known as early as 1100. The Arabians assert that cotton paper had been manufactured at Samarcand in the eighth century, the method having been introduced from China. Though linen paper was very little known till the latter part of the fourteenth century, it is an unreasonable scepticism to doubt its use in the West in the middle of the thirteenth. Pace da Fabiano of Treviso is said to have been its inventor; but subsequent researches place him in the same rank of fabulous persons, as Flavio Gioia and the monk Schwartz.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

GREEK EMPIRE AND THE EAST.—1402, Invasion of Tamerlane; Mohammed I.—1425, John Palæologus; Huniades and Scanderbeg.—1448, Constantine Palæologus.—1451, Mohammed II.—1453, Constantinople taken by the Turks.—1480, Siege of Rhodes; Bajazet II.

GERMANY.—1400, Robert; 1410, Sigismond.—1414, Council of Constance; Hussite War.—1436, Peace of Iglau—1438, Austrian House.—1464, Ernestine and Albertine Houses; 1479, Victory at Guinegate.—1493, Maximilian I.; 1495, Diet of Worms: *Imperial Chamber*.—1500, Six Circles.

FRANCE.—1407, Civil War; Burgundians and Armagnacs.—1415, Defeat at Agincourt.—1420 Treaty at Troyes.—1422, Charles VII.—1423, Defeat at Verneuil.—1429, Joan of Arc.—

1461, Louis XI.—1477, Charles of Burgundy killed at Nancy.—1479, Swiss League.—1483, Charles VIII.—1495, Naples conquered; Victory of Fornovo.

BRITAIN.—1401, Sawtree Burnt for Heresy.—1413, Henry V.—1415, AGINCOURT.—1422, Henry VI.; Bedford, Regent.—1444, Truce of Tours; Jack Cade; WARS OF THE ROSES.—1455, Battle of St. Albans; 1460, of Wakefield Green.—1461, HOUSE OF YORK; Edward IV.—1471, Battle of Barnett; 1483, of Tewkesbury; Jane Shore, Edward V., Richard III.—1485, TUDORS; Henry VII.—1487, Simnel and Perkin Warbeck.

ITALIAN PENINSULA.—1400, John de Medici.—1434, Cosmo I.—1435, Alphonso V. of Naples.—1460, Defeat at Sarno.—1466, Galeazzo Sforza.—1469, Lorenzo de Medici.—1485, Revolt of Nobles.

SPANISH PENINSULA.—1406, John II. of Castile; Alvarez de Luna; Power of Grandmaster of the Three Orders.—1409, Martin V. of Aragon and Sicily.—1419, John II. of Navarre.—1452, Don Carlos defeated at Aibar.—Roussillon and Cerdagne sold to France.—1454, Henry IV.—Invasion of Granada.—1465, Deposition of Henry.—1474, ISABELLA.—1479, Union of Castile and Aragon.—1480, Inquisition.—1492, Conquest of Granada.

CHURCH—1409, Hussites.—1414, Sixteenth General Council; Constance.—1429, End of Schism of the West.—1439, Council of Florence.—1454, St. Francis de Paulo founds the order of *Minims*.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.—1440, Carriages.—1449, Felt Hats.—Painting in Oil.—1461, Engraving on Copper; First Silk Manufacture.—1450, Printing.—1474, First Lithotomic Operation.—1495, Algebra.—1486, Cape of Good Hope.—1492, America discovered.

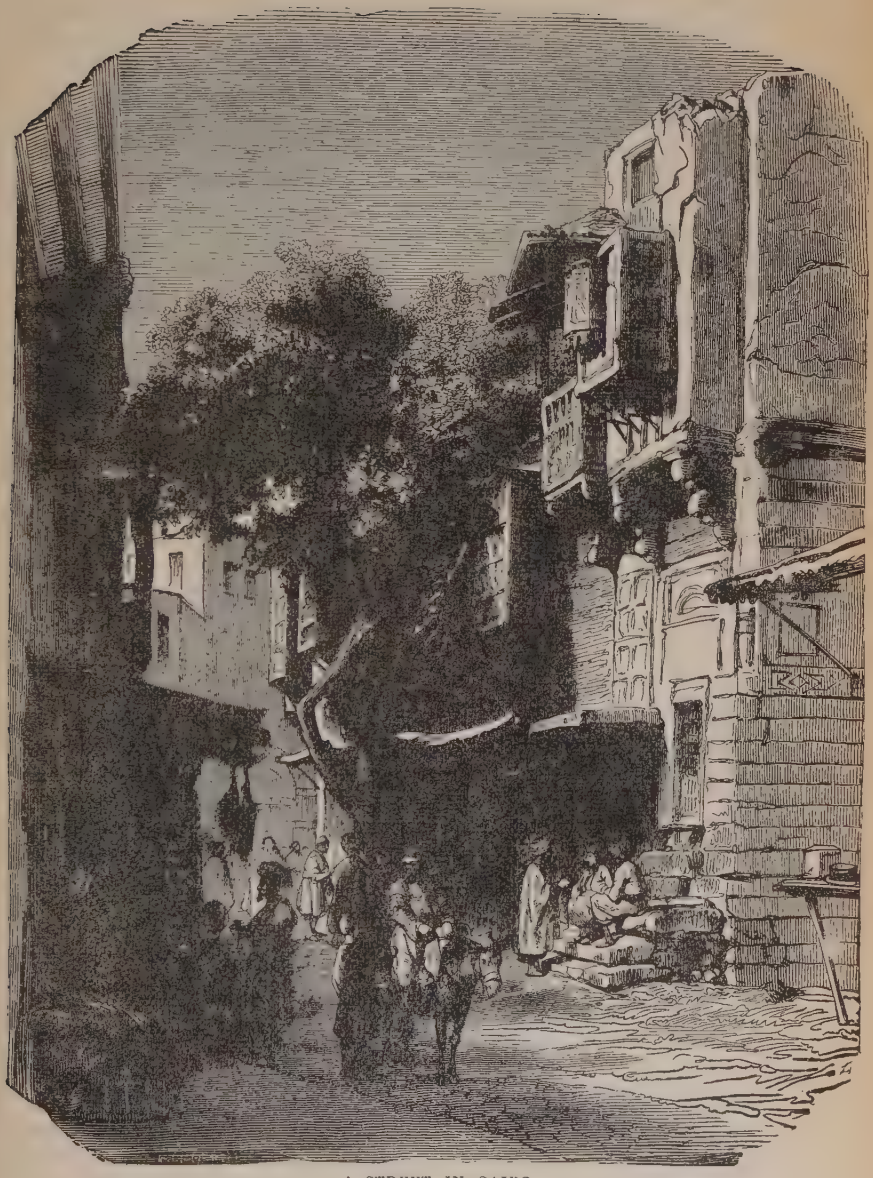
LITERATURE AND ART.—Poggio, L. Valla, Pulci, Politian, Pico Mirandola, Manutius Aldus, *Ital.*—Budæus, *Fr.*—Villena, J. de Mena, *Sp.*—Lydgate, Fortescue, Littleton, Caxton, *Eng.*—Thomas a Kempis, Reuchlin, *Germ.*

GREEK EMPIRE.

FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE.—The destruction of the Greek empire was for a time delayed by the invasions of Tamerlane, so that MANUEL, who had visited the west of Europe in the hope of obtaining succors from the Latin powers, returned to his capital, where he reigned many years in prosperity and peace. In 1425, the crown descended to JOHN PALÆOLOGUS II., who, with a design of healing the schism between the Eastern and Western churches, attended the council of Ferrara, 1438. Had this visit failed in its object, still the revival of Greek literature in Italy by the learned men in the emperor's train would have been ample

compensation. On his decease, in 1448, the throne was occupied for the last time by one of its native sovereigns, CONSTANTINE PALÆOLOGUS. He was soon attacked by the young and ambitious Mohammed II., who laid siege to his capital in the spring of 1453. The emperor, having implored in vain the assistance of the Latin princes of Europe, was left with only 7000 or 8000 men to contend against a victorious rival at the head of 260,000. Fourteen batteries, mounting guns of enormous calibre, poured their destructive fire, night and day, against the ancient walls. The various operations of the siege were conducted with the greatest impetuosity on both sides; while the failing spirits of the garrison and citizens were revived by the timely arrival of five heavy laden ships of war, that had broken through the line of the enemy's fleet, and caused a loss of 12,000 men. Although this was the only attempt made to succor Constantinople, it so discouraged the sultan that he was about to withdraw his troops, when the devoted city was entirely surrounded by transporting some of the lighter Ottoman vessels over a narrow isthmus into the inner part of the harbor. The terms of capitulation which Mohammed now offered were such as the religion of Constantine forbade him to accept. Preparations were accordingly made for a fierce struggle, and while the Greeks dedicated the whole night of the 28th May to prayer, the besieging camp was already filled with the shouts of victory. At daybreak, the city was violently attacked on all sides; the valor of the Christians long rendered the event doubtful, and the fortune of that day might have been different, but for the retreat of Justiniani, the Genoese commander, and his auxiliaries. A gigantic jinizary, named Hassan, was the first to climb the shattered rampart, and though precipitated into the ditch, he had shown the practicability of the enterprise. Palæologus fell by an unknown hand, resisting to the last; and with him the fate of his capital was decided, after a siege of fifty-three days, 29th May 1453. Constantinople was sacked, and its inhabitants became the prey of the victors. In the destruction of the libraries, posterity has to regret the loss of 120,000 manuscripts.

The dissolution of the Greek empire now proceeds step by step. "Every province was in turn subdued; the limbs were lopped off one by one; and the majesty of the Roman name was ultimitely confined to the walls of Constantinople. Before Mohammed II. planted his cannon against them, he had deprived the expiring empire of every hope of succor or delay. It was necessary that Constantinople should fall; but the magnanimous resignation of her emperor bestows an honor upon her fall, which her prosperity seldom earned. The long deferred but inevitable moment arrived, and the last of the Cæsars folded round him the imperial mantle, and remembered the name which he represented in the dignity of heroic death."



A STREET IN CAIRO.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND TURKEY.

INVASION OF TAMERLANE.—In 1402, Tamerlane invaded the Ottoman empire, after provoking Bajazet by menacing letters, in which he was compared to an insect. The sultan was at this time besieging Constantinople, when hastily breaking up his camp before that city, he marched against the Mongols, who were attacking Angora, in Asia Minor. Here, on the 28th July, he gave battle on the ground where Pompey defeated the army of Mithridates. The combat was prolonged during three days and two nights, and 140,000 men were left dead on that terrible field of slaughter. The Turks were completely routed, and Bajazet fell into the hands of the conqueror, by whom (according to the western historians, whose testimony is not confirmed by the Persians) he was carried about enclosed in an iron cage until his death. Fortunately for Europe, the want of ships checked the progress of Tamerlane on the shores of the Hellspoint and Bosporus. The victor now returned to Samarcand, whence his ambition, which the snows of seventy winters had not cooled, hurried him to China, hoping to add that country to his acquisitions; but he did not live to realize his project, having died at Otrar, 1st April, 1405. The fate of his kingdom was similar to that of Alexander, whose place is nearly occupied. From a portion of this immense dominion his descendant Baber, in the next century formed an empire of the Great Mogul in India.

BRITAIN.

ENGLAND.—In 1501 and 1502 were concluded two marriages which led to important results in after-times. Arthur, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VII., having espoused Catherine of Aragon, fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, and dying six months afterwards, his brother, afterwards Henry VIII.; accepted the hand of the widow; while Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII., married James IV. of Scotland, thereby transmitting rights to her descendants which at length placed the Stuart family on the English throne.

MODERN HISTORY.

FROM THE ERA OF THE REFORMATION, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

The great historical and political events which characterize this last period of Universal History, were brought about by many concurrent circumstances, sufficiently united in respect of date to form a marked difference between the middle ages and the events of modern times. The introduction of the mariner's compass was followed, though at a long interval, by the discovery of America, and the circumnavigation of Africa; while the invention of printing prepared the way for the intellectual and religious changes effected by Luther in the sixteenth century.

In considering the actual state of Europe, we must not forget the influence of race and language. The nations of the South, with their Roman habits and dialects, were in almost constant opposition to those of the North, whose language and manners were of Germanic origin. In the West, civilization was rapidly developed, and carried to the most distant countries, whereas in the East, the people, chiefly of Sclavonic lineage, were too much engaged in opposing the barbarians to make any great progress in the arts of peace. Similar causes will also account for the backwardness of the Scandinavian tribes, who were so far removed from the influence of refinement.

In all the nations of Gothic descent, which alone were strictly under the feudal law, a powerful middle class arose by degrees, and supported the kings against the barons. But the struggle was long and severe ere the people triumphed. In the middle of the fifteenth century, feudalism was dominant in the Empire; it had humbled the Castilian monarchs, and preserved its supremacy in Portugal, England, and Naples; in Scotland it was attacked by the sovereigns; while in France, Charles VIII., successful in recovering those provinces conquered by the English, paved the way for its abolition; and, before the end of the century, Ferdinand of Spain, Henry VII. of England, and Louis XI. of France, had established the royal power on its ruins. Sweden which had been united to Denmark during sixty years, broke the union of Calmar; Russia emancipated herself from the Tartar yoke; and the Teutonic order of knights became the vassals of Poland. During the time the emperor was busied in founding

the greatness of his house, and Germany in repairing the evils inflicted by her political and religious wars, all the Eastern states were menaced by the Turks, whom the Hungarians at length arrested in their victorious career. By the middle of the sixteenth century, the Reform doctrines were already spread throughout Europe, particularly in France, England, Scotland and the Low Countries. Spain alone remained closed against them, and became their most determined adversary.

The Eastern and Northern states did not long remain strangers to the European republics. During the rivalry of Francis I. and Charles VI., Turkey was identified with the European system; and at the beginning of the seventeenth century, Sweden interfered in a resolute manner in the affairs of her southern neighbors. It was now that France assumed a high position; and Louis XIV. dictated to Europe so long as his antagonists were composed of the divided Empire, Holland, and Spain, then almost ruined; but his influence and power were eclipsed so soon as William III., in 1688, ascended the British throne, and was enabled to wield the extensive resources of his new kingdom. In concert with Holland, the English destroyed the pretensions of France to the dominion of the sea, and, in union with Austria, confined her within her proper limits, though they could not prevent the establishment of a Bourbon on the Spanish throne. Sweden was the principal northern power; twice she effected considerable conquests, but was too feeble to maintain a lasting supremacy. Her career, too, was checked by Russia, which eventually attained the superiority she has ever since preserved.

The beginning of the eighteenth century was marked by the formation of the kingdoms of Prussia and Sardinia. The colonial wars, one of the characteristics of this period, furnished England with an opportunity of destroying the navies of France and Spain, and of asserting her power over the neutral states. The revolution of her American dependencies threatened her influence, and terminated in the loss of these important settlements; but, presenting a determined front to her enemies, she founded in the East an empire of vast wealth and extent.

At the close of the eighteenth century, war raged throughout the greater part of Europe; and the very foundations of society were shaken by the most terrible revolution on record. The political whirlwind spread from France over Europe, leaving in all directions the deepest marks of its progress. But as storms and tempests serve to purify the atmosphere, so good has, in the political world, sprung out of what appeared to be unmingled evil. Constitutional monarchies are everywhere established, or the way is rapidly preparing for them; and the influence of the middle class is more directly felt in the governments both of England and France.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—1509, Henry VIII.—1513, Battle of Flodden; James V.—1514, Wolsey.—Anne Boleyn.—1536, First Suppression of Monasteries.—1542, Mary, Queen of Scotland.—1547, Edward VI.—1553, Mary.—1558, Elizabeth.—1587, Queen of Scotland beheaded.—1588, Spanish Armada defeated.

ITALIAN PENINSULA—1501, Naples conquered by French.—1503, Battle of Cerignola; 1525, of Pavia.—1537, Cosmo de Medici.—1547, Fieschi's Conspiracy.—1580, Charles Emanuel of Savoy.—1585, Pope Sixtus V.

SPANISH PENINSULA.—1500, Charles V., born; Ximenes.—1539, Last Castilian Cortes.—1555, Philip II.—1557, Sebastian of Portugal.—1578, Henry I. of Portugal.—1696, Cadiz taken by the English.

UNITED PROVINCES.—1568, Death of Counts Egmont and Horn.—1579, Union of Utrecht.—1584, Prince of Orange murdered.—1597, Victory of Turnhout.

GERMANY—1501, Aulic Council.—1517, Luther.—1519, Charles V., Emperor.—1530, Diet of Augsburg.—1535, Anabaptist War.—1545, Council of Trent.—1552, Treaty of Passau.—1556, Ferdinand I.; 1564, Maximilian II.; 1576, Rudolph II.

HUNGARY AND BOHEMIA.—1490, Ladislaus.—1516, Louis II.—1526, Battle of Mohaz; John Zapoli and Ferdinand.—1541, John Sigismund.—1548, Hereditary Succession of Bohemia.—1566, Turkish Invasion.

POLAND AND RUSSIA.—1506, Sigismund I., king of Poland.—1519, Polish War against Teutonic Order.—1533, Ivan IV.—1550, New Code.—1573, Henry of Valois.—1581, Conquest of Siberia.—1598, End of Rurik Dynasty.

DENMARK, SWEDEN AND NORWAY.—1448, Christian II.—1523, Gustavus Vasa.—1534, Christian III.—1560, Eric of Sweden.—1592, Sigismund of Poland.

THE EAST.—1501, Ismael Sophi, king of Persia.—1512, Selim I.—1515, Mogul Empire in the East Indies.—1521, Belgrade taken.—1522, Siege of Rhodes.—1548, War with Persia.—1553, Roxalana.—1571, Battle of Lepanto.—1574, Amurrath III.—1585, Shah Abbas.

COLONIES.—1500, Brazil discovered.—1503, Portuguese first established in India.—1508, West Indies.—1513, Discovery of the South Sea.—1526, Pizarro in Peru.—1584, Virginia, the first English colony.—1586, Davis' Straits.

THE CHURCH.—1517, Luther.—1525, Capuchin Order.—1530, Confession of Augsburg.—1533, Calvinists.—1534, English Reformation.—1540, Jesuits.—1545, Council of Trent.—1546, Socinians.—1552, St. Francis Xavier.—1568, Bull *in Cœna Domini*.—1572, Massacre of St. Bartholomew.—1580, Chinese Mission.

INVENTIONS, &c.—1517, Gun locks.—1538, Lotteries.—1548, Balance Wheel.—1582, Reformed Calendar; Oil Painting.—1593, Telescope and Thermometer.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

GREAT BRITAIN.—1603, THE STUARTS: James I.—1605, Gunpowder Plot.—1621, *Whigs and Tories.*—1625, Charles I.—1638, Solemn Covenant; Long Parliament.—1641, Irish Rebellion.—1643, Episcopacy abolished.—CIVIL WAR.—1649, The Commonwealth.—1653, Cromwell, Protector.—1660, The Restoration: Charles II.—1665, 1666, Plague and Fire of London.—1679, *Habeas Corpus* Act.—1688, Revolution; House of Orange.—1694, Triennial Act.

FRANCE.—1610, Louis XIII.—Richelieu and Mazarin.—1643, Louis XIV.—1659, Peace of Pyrenees.—1668, Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—1685, Edict of Nantes revoked.—1697, Peace of Ryswick.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.—1610, Moors expelled—1621, Philip IV.—Decline of Spain.—1640, Revolution of Portugal.—Braganza Dynasty.—1668, Independence of Portugal.

ITALY.—1647, Massaniello.—1645, Candian War.

GERMANY.—1618, Thirty Years' War.—1648, Treaty of Westphalia.—1682, Insurrection of Tekeli.—1683, Siege of Vienna by the Turks.—1687, Hungary becomes hereditary in the Austrian Family.

HOLLAND.—1609, Truce with Spain.—1618, Synod of Dort.—1648, Treaty of Munster.—1678, Treaty of Nimeguen.—1689, William III., of Holland, becomes King of England.

DENMARK.—1588, Christian IV.—1611, Swedish War.—1648, Frederick III.

SWEDEN.—1611, Gustavus Adolphus.—1632, Battle of Lutzen; Christiana Abdicates in 1654.—1697, Charles XII.

POLAND.—1632, Ladislaus IV.—1647, Cossack War.—1674, John Sobiesky; Raises the Siege of Vienna, 1683.—1686, Treaty of Leopol.

RUSSIA.—1613, ROMANOF DYNASTY: Michael.—1645,—Alexis. 1667, Revolt of the Cossacks.—1689, Peter the Great; Turkish War.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE.—1645, Candian War.—1669, Conquest of Candia; Mohammed IV.—1699, Treaty of Carlowitz.

THE EAST.—Shah Abbas.—1694, Hussein Mirza.—1644, Tartar Dynasty in China.—1611, Dutch Trade with Japan.—1659, Aurengzebe; The Mahrattas.

COLONIES.—1600, East India Company.—1623, Dutch Cruelties at Amboyna.—1648, Factories at Madras and Hoogly; 1699, Fort-

William at Calcutta.—1674, Colonies on Guinea Coast.—1625, Barbadoes and St Kitt's.—1641, Sugar-cane planted in West Indies.—1655, Conquest of Jamaica.—1627, Boston founded.—1630, Rhode Island.—1632 Maryland.—1680, Carolina.—1682 Pennsylvania.—1664, French West India Company; Buccaneers.—1650, Dutch settle at Cape of Good Hope.—1656. Ceylon.

CHURCH.—1638, Jansenism.—1709, Port Royal suppressed.—1650, Quakers.

INVENTIONS, &c.—1602 Decimal Arithmetic.—1610, Thermometer; Satellites of Jupiter.—1614, Logarithms.—1625, Barometer.—1628, Circulation of Blood demonstrated; Tea, Coffee, Chocolate, and Sugar introduced.—1658, Pocket Watches.—1686, Newtonian Philosophy.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

GREAT BRITAIN.—1700, Act of Succession.—1702, Anne.—1707, Scottish Union.—1704, Victory of Blemheim; Gibraltar taken.—1706, Ramillies; 1708, Oudenarde; 1709, Malplaquet.—1714, House of Brunswick; George I.—1715, 1745, Scottish Rebellions.—1716, Septennial Act.—1718, Quadruple Alliance.—1720, South Sea Bubble; Walpole.—1743, Victory at Dettingen.—1748, Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—1759, Conquest of Canada.—1763 John Wilkes; American War, ended 1783; Fox and Pitt.—Naval Victories of Howe, 1794; Duncan and Jervis, 1797; Nelson, 1798.—1798, Irish Rebellion.

FRANCE.—1700, War of Spanish Succession.—1715, The Regency of Orleans.—1718, Mississippi Scheme.—1733, War of Polish Succession.—1740, War of Austrian Succession.—1756, Seven Years' War.—1764, Jesuits suppressed.—1774, Louis XVI.—1789, States-General.—REVOLUTION; 1793, King beheaded.—1794, The Directory.—1798, Egyptian Expedition.—1799, Consulate; Bonaparte.

SPAIN.—1700, Philip V. of Anjou; Cardinal Alberoni.—1746, Ferdinand IV.—1761, Family Compact.—1788, Charles IV.

PORTUGAL.—1703, Methuen Treaty.—1706, John V.—1714, Portuguese Academy.—1750, Joseph I.; Marquis of Pombal.—1755, Earthquake at Lisbon.—1758, Jesuits expelled.

ITALY.—Victor Amadeus II. of Sardinia.—1737, Francis of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuscany.—1767, Jesuits expelled from Sicily.

GERMANY.—1705, Joseph I.—1711, Charles VI.—1724, Pragmatic Sanction.—1740, MARIA THERESA; War of the Austrian Succession.—1748, Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—1763, Treaty of Paris.—1777, Bavarian Succession; 1779, Peace of Teschen.—1780, Joseph II.—1792, Francis II.—1797, Treaty of Campo Formio

HOLLAND.—1713, Peace of Utrecht.—1747, William IV.—1751, Regency.—1787, Revolution; William V.—1795, Batavian Republic.

DENMARK.—Frederick IV.—1720, Peace of Stockholm.—1746, Frederick V.; Bernstorf—1766, Christian VII.; Affranchisement of Serfs.—Struensee beheaded, 1772.

SWEDEN.—1700, Charles XII.—1709.—Defeat at Pultowa.—1738, Factions of *Hats* and *Caps*.—1771, Gustavus III.—1792, Gustavus IV.

POLAND.—1697, Augustus II.—1763, Stanislaus Poniatowski.—Religious Quarrels.—Partitions, 1772, 1793, 1795.

PRUSSIA.—1701, Frederick I.—1740, Frederick II.—1756, Seven Years' War.—1786, Frederick William III.; War with France.

RUSSIA.—Peter the Great.—1700, Defeat of Narva.—1725, Catherine I.—1762, Catherine II.; Turkish War.

TURKEY.—1715, War with Venice.—1718, Treaty of Passarowitz.—1730, Revolution; Mahmoud I.—Treatise of Kainardge, 1774; of Jassy, 1792.

PERSIA.—1727, Nadir Shah.—1738, Invasion of Hindostan; Kingdoms of Cabul and Candahar.—1797, Futteh Ali.

INDIA.—1707, Sikh Wars —1756, Black Hole of Calcutta.—1757, Battle of Plassey.—1766, Hyder Ali; Warren Hastings. 1799, Tippoo Saib killed.

UNITED STATES—1773, Disturbances at Boston; War of Independence.—1777, Burgoyne capitulates.—1783, Independence recognized by England.—1787, Federal Constitution.

HAYTI.—1794, Rebellion of Slaves; Toussaint l'Ouverture.

CHURCH.—1773, Suppression of Jesuits.—1793, Abolition of Religious Worship in France.—1740, Methodists in England.

DISCOVERIES, &C.—1720, Fahrenheit's Thermometer; Reaumur, 1731.—1713, Ruins of Herculaneum.—1750, Ruins of Pompeii —1759, Eddystone Lighthouse built; Lewenhoek's Microscope.—1781, Planet Herschel.—1783, Air Balloon by Montgolfier; Lightning Conductors.—1791, Galvanism; Galvanic Battery.—1794–1798, Vaccination.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

GREAT BRITAIN.—1801, Irish Union—1802, Peace of Amiens. —1805, Victory of Trafalgar.—1808, Peninsular War.—1810, Regency.—1812, War with the United States.—1814, Battle of Toulouse.—1815, Waterloo.—1820, George IV.—1821, Trial of the Queen.—1826, Speculations and Bankruptcies.—1829, Catholic Relief Bill.—1830, William IV.—1831, Reform Bill.—1837, Victoria; Separation of Hanover.—1838, The Chartists.—1840, War

with China.—1843, Trial of O'Connel.—1846, Oregon Treaty.—1847–1848, Famine in Ireland.—1849, England supports the Sultan against Russia.

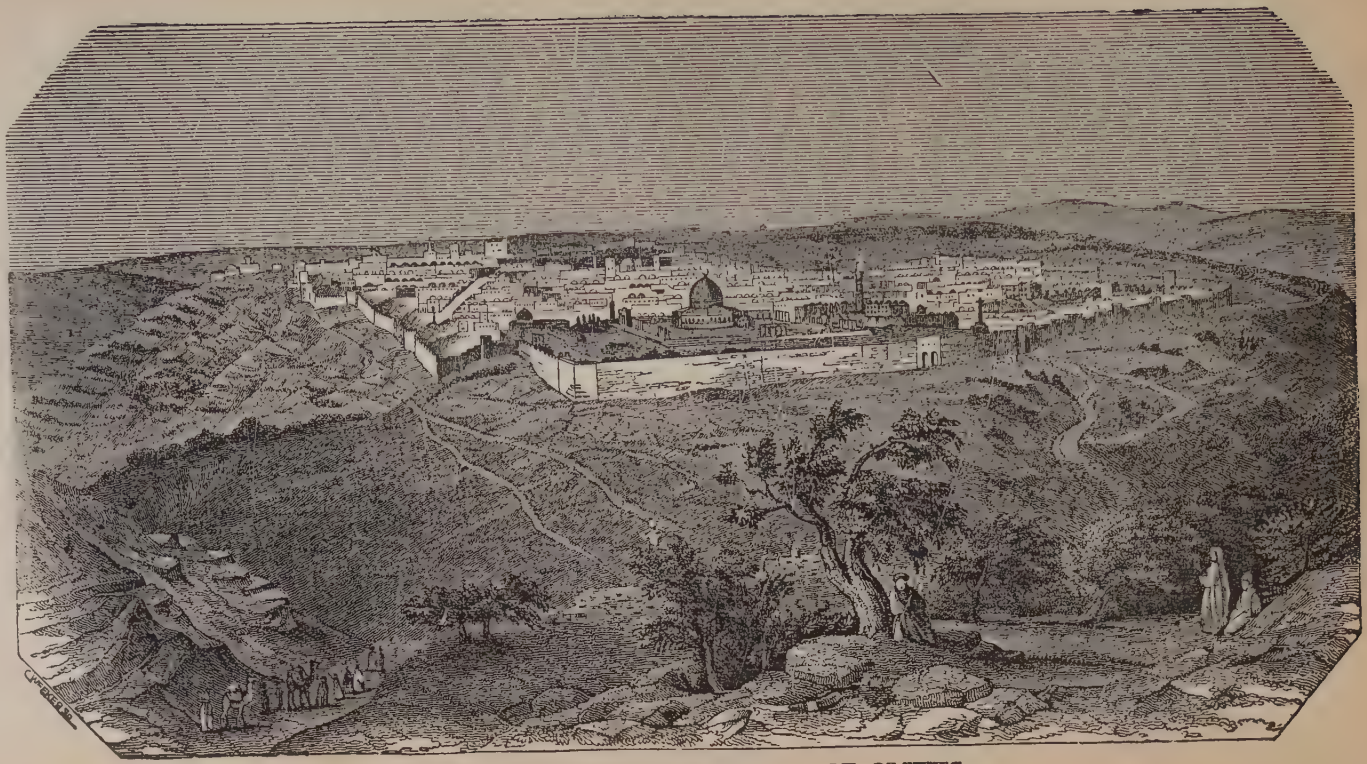
FRANCE.—1800, Marengo and Hohenlinden.—1802, Peace of Amiens.—1804, Napoleon Emperor.—1805, Austerlitz.—1806, Jena.—Berlin Decrees.—1807, Eylau.—Treaty of Tilsit.—Occupation of Portugal; Usurpation in Spain.—1809, Wagram.—1810, Napoleon marries Maria Louisa.—1812, Russian Campaign.—1813, Leipsic.—1814, First Treaty of Paris.—1815, The Hundred Days; Waterloo.—Louis XVIII.; the Charter.—1818, Riots; France a party to the Quadruple Alliance.—1821, Distractions of the Government.—1823, War with Spain.—1824, Charles X.—1829, Ministry of Polignac.—1830, The Revolution; Three days' battle; Expulsion of Charles; Louis Philippe.—1831, Riots and Conspiracies.—1832, The Cholera.—1839, The Thiers Ministry; Imprisonment of Louis Napoleon.—1840, Guizot's Peace Policy.—1842–1847, Movements of the Clubs.—1848, The Revolution; Expulsion of the King; Proclamation of a Republic; the June Insurrection; Louis Napoleon, President.—1849, Siege of Rome; Riots in Lyons.

SPAIN.—1807, Treaty of Fontainebleau.—1808, Charles IV. abdicated.—Joseph Bonaparte; Siege of Saragossa.—1813, Battle of Vittoria.—Ferdinand VII.—1815–1821, Tyranny of Ferdinand.—1820–1825, Revolt of the American Colonies.—1823, War with France.—1824–1829, Losses on the American Continent.—1833, Death of Ferdinand; Regency.—1840–1850, Maladministration of the Queen.

PORTUGAL.—1807, French Invasion.—1808, Convention of Cintra.—1810, John VI.—1821, Popular Constitution.—1822, The New Constitution.—1823, Plot for its overthrow.—1824, Don Miguel seizes the Government.—1825, the King's death.—1826–1828, Intrigues of Miguel.—1830, His cruelty.—1831, War with France and Britain.—1834, Expulsion of Don Miguel.—1836, Riot in Lisbon.—1844, Insurrection at Torres Novas.

ITALY.—1799, Parthenopean Republic.—1806, Joseph Bonaparte, King of Naples.—Battle of Madia.—1808, Murat King.—1812, Sicilian Constitution.—1815, New federal Compact of Zurich.—1815, Division of the Country.—1820, The Carbonari.—1825, Tyranny of Austria.—1823, Leo XII.—1831, Gregory XVI; 1831, Efforts of the Italians for liberty.—1846, Pius IX.—1847, The Pope's Concessions to the People.—1848, Expulsion of Pius; the Roman Republic.—1849, Siege of Rome.

GERMANY and PRUSSIA.—1805, Confederation of the Rhine.—1809, Battle of Aspern.—Tyrolese War.—1815, Germanic League.—1831, Censorship of the Press.—1840 Ronge, and the German Catholic Church.—1848, Commotions and Revolutions.—1849, The Prussian King declines the Imperial Crown.



JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES.

HOLLAND.—1806, Louis Bonaparte King.—1810, Incorporation with France.—1815, William Frederick I. King of United Netherlands.

DENMARK.—1801, Battle of the Baltic.—1807, Bombardment of Copenhagen.—1814, Cession of Norway to Sweden.

SWEDEN.—1809, Gustavus IV. deposed; Charles XIII.—1810, Bernadotte Crown Prince.—1818, Charles XIV.—1823, Constitutional Reforms.—1830, Internal Improvements.—1844, Oscar I.

PRUSSIA.—1797, Frederick III.—1806, Defeat at Jena.—1813, War with France *Landsturm;* Blucher.—Lutzen and Bautzen; Leipsic.—1814, Restoration of Territories.

RUSSIA.—1801, Paul I. assassinated; Alexander I.—1807, Friedland; Treaty of Tilsit.—1809–1812, Turkish War.—1812, French Invasion; Burning of Moscow.—1815, Kingdom of Poland.—1825, Nicholas.—1826, War with Persia.—1828, War with Turkey.—1829, Treaty of Adrianople.—1840, War with Cireassia.—1848, Suppression of the Hungarian movement.

TURKEY.—1806, Insurrection of Janissaries; Mustapha IV.—Mahmoud II.—1812, Peace of Bucharest.—1817, Seizure of Moldavia and Wallachia.—1826, Riot in Constantinople.—1825, War with Greece.—1828, War with Russia.—1832, War with Mehemed Ali.—1839, Battle of Nezib; Death of the Sultan.—1840–1845, Attempts at Reform.—1846, War with Greece.—1848, The Hungarian Refugees.

BRITISH INDIA.—1803, Mahratta War; Battle of Assaye.—1813, Marquis of Hastings; Pindaree War.—1818, British Paramount throughout India.

UNITED STATES.—1801, Mr. Jefferson President.—1803, Purchase of Louisiana.—1812, War with Britain.—1814, Treaty of Ghent.—1817, Acquisition of Florida.—1825, Visit of Lafayette.—1826, Death of Adams and Jefferson.—1828, The Tariff Bill.—1832–1833, Nullification Movement.—1833, War against the Bank.—1835, Florida War; Dade Massacred.—1836, Texas.—1837, National Distress; the Border Difficulties.—1839, The Whigs in power.—1842, The Ashburton Treaty.—1845, Annexation of Texas.—1846, War with Mexico; Matamoras and Monterey taken.—1847, Battle of Buena Vista; Fall of Vera Cruz and Mexico.—1848, Treaty with Mexico; Accession of California and New Mexico.

BRAZIL.—1822, Declaration of Independence; Don Pedro Emperor; Brazil independent.—1824, Constitution.—1831, Don Pedro II.

SPANISH COLONIES.—1810, Revolution in Caraccas.—1816, Buenos Ayres.—1818, Chili.—1821, Mexico, Peru, and Guatemala.—1824, Victory of Ayacucho; Final Expulsion of Spaniards.

THE NETHERLANDS.—1816–1820, Discontent of the Constituent States.—1821, Troubles in the East Indies.—1829, Restrictions

of the Press.—1830, Revolution in Brussels; Bombardment of Antwerp.—1831, The Kingdom of Belgium.—1839, Holland acknowledges the Independence of Belgium.

AUSTRIA.—1819, Austrian Oppressions of the smaller European States.—1820, Domestic Policy of the Emperor.—1835, Ferdinand I.—1846, Annexation of Cracow.—1847, Seizure of Ferrara. 1848, Expulsion of Ferdinand; War in Hungary.—1849, Austrian Cruelty.

GREECE.—1821, The Revolution; Atrocities in Cyprus, Smyrna, Tripolizza and Cassandra.—1822, Dessolation of Scio.—1823, Greek Successes in Morea; Bozzaris.—1825, Siege of Missolonghi.—1826, Interference of the Great Powers.—1829, Greece Independent.—1830, Otho, King of Greece.—1844, The Constitution.

MEXICO.—1821, Iturbide, Emperor; his Banishment.—1828, Civil War.—1831–1833, Movements of Santa Anna.—1835–1836, Texan Revolution.—1838, War with France.—1846, War with the United States.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—1822, Separation from Mexico.—1824–1829, Civil War.—1842, Death of Carrera.

COLUMBIA.—1821–1824, Successes against Spain.—1825, Revolt of Paez.—1827–1830, Intrigues of Bolivar.

PERU and BOLIVIA.—1822–1836, Struggles of Factions.—1838, War with Bolivia.—1839, Santa Cruz.

LA PLATA and CHILI.—1822, Independence of La Plata.—1825, War with Brazil.

CHILI.—1828, The Constitution.—1837, War with Peru; Administration of Prieto.

In 1854, Great Britain, France, and Sardinia formed an alliance in aid of the Sultan engaged in a war with Russia, which was carried on mainly in the Crimea, and resulted in victory to the allies. Peace was made in 1856.

In Great Britain, during the last twenty-five years, the right of franchise has been greatly extended. The Irish Church has been disestablished and other forms instituted.

Reform in England.—*Revolution* in France. In 1852 Napoleon III. was proclaimed Emperor. He reigned eighteen years. The war between France and Germany, in 1870, humiliated France, cost Napoleon his throne, and set up a republic in place of the empire.

Since 1850, no country has been the theatre of greater change than Italy. Austria has been driven beyond the Alps, the temporal power of the pope has been completely overthrown. Garibaldi gave freedom to Naples and Sicily, the separate states elected Victor Emanuel king, and in 1870 the work of deliverance and union was complete, Italy was a nation, with Rome for its capital.

Germany has also been the scene of most remarkable changes. For generations the Germans have dreamed of unity. It was long delayed by the jealousy between Austria and Prussia, each being ambitious to be recognized as the leading state in the reconstruction of the empire. The long pending question, which of the two should guide the destinies of Fatherland, was at last settled by an appeal to arms, in 1866, in what was called the Six Weeks' War. At the end of that time Austria was compelled by her defeats and losses to sue for peace.

In 1870, Napoleon III., on the merest pretext, declared war against the North German Confederation, the fatal mistake of his life. Soon a million men were in the field under the king of Prussia. The French invaded Germany, but were driven out with immense loss by the defeat Weissenburg. Then followed Prussian victories at Worth, Sedan, Metz, and the capture of 300,000 French troops. Paris was besieged, and after many sorties and a defense of four months, finally capitulated Jan. 28, 1871. Peace soon followed, Napoleon was deposed, Alsace and Lorraine were ceded to Germany, and France was compelled to pay an indemnity of 5,000,000,000 francs.

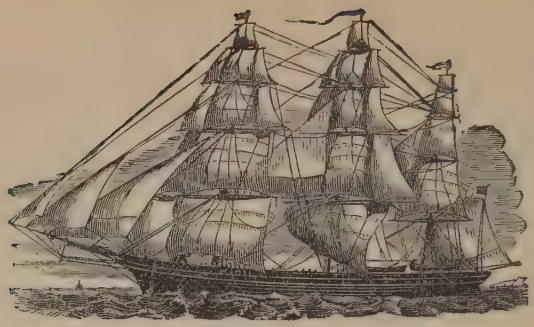
This war also secured the unification of Germany. Twenty-five states united in forming the German Empire, and elected William, of Prussia, emperor. In the meantime Austria and its adjuncts formed a separate kingdom, known as the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The triumph of Prussia was complete, but it was also the triumph of Germany. The Austro-Prussian War raised Prussia to the first place in Germany; the Franco-Prussian War raised Germany to the first place in Europe.

Spain has gone through revolutions and civil war, banished its queen, tried republican government, and finally returned to a limited monarchy.

Not less marvelous than these changes in Europe, have been those which make the history of the last quarter of a century the most remarkable in the annals of Asia. The whole of that continent so long shut up against the rest of the world, has opened its doors to commerce, western civilization, and Christianity, and is being rapidly transformed into a new world.

In Africa, the researches of Livingstone and others have brought to the knowledge of the world new races, and demonstrated that Central Africa is the home of millions of people. If the source of the Nile had not been discovered, the slave trade had been almost totally destroyed.

Australia, comparatively unknown thirty years ago, has risen to the dignity of a continent, and through its wonderful gold mines, and other unsuspected but marvelous resources, added largely to the commerce and wealth of the world.



THE DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF THE AMERICAN CONTINENT.

ABOUT the end of the tenth century, the Scandinavians, in some of their maritime expeditions, had reached Iceland and Greenland, from which latter country they appear to have advanced to Vinland, probably Labrador. In Greenland some unimportant settlements were made, and the communication with the transatlantic continent was maintained until the beginning of the 15th century, when the fate of these colonies was covered as with a cloud; and although various attempts have since been made for their discovery, no traces of their existence have been obtained. In Southern Europe these expeditions were entirely unknown, and therefore the undiminished glory was left to Columbus of proving the existence of the Western World. This celebrated navigator was of Genoese origin, though his character had been formed and his skill acquired in the service of Portugal. His active mind readily foresaw the length and difficulties of a voyage to the Indies by sailing to the eastward, even if the route should be discovered; and it appeared to him that by sailing directly west he would more readily attain his object. Many circumstances, the importance of which is best known to mariners, supported his theories; but those to whom he applied for protection and support did not acknowledge their force. The Genoese Senate regarded him as a

madman; in Portugal his confidence was most treacherously abused, and in England his brother Bartholomew obtained the consent of Henry VII., only when too late. After many obstacles, arising from the ignorance and religious scruples of those to whom his project was submitted, Columbus sailed with three small vessels from Palos in Andalusia, 3d August, 1492. On the night of the 11th October, land was seen after a tedious voyage, during which the commander had to contend against the cowardly and rebellious spirit of his crew. San Salvador or Guanahani, one of the Bahama chain stretching between Florida and St. Domingo, was the island first discovered. Cuba and Hayti were reached soon after. Columbus, now directing his course homeward, returned to the harbor of Palos, seven months and eleven days after his departure. He was received with great kindness by Ferdinand and Isabella, who ennobled his family, and ratified all the privileges of the treaty of Santa Fe. By the articles of this treaty, drawn up before Columbus sailed, he was created high admiral, with hereditary right in the seas he should discover; viceroy also, with hereditary possession of the lands; he was to receive a tithe of the profits of commercial undertakings, and be supreme judge in all mercantile disputes in the newly-discovered countries

While Europe was still re-echoing with the news of this voyage, the navigator had again sailed towards the west with seventeen vessels, having on board numerous settlers eager to reap the golden harvest which the descriptions of travelers had placed in the Indies. Isabella, in the island of Cuba, was the first city founded in the New World. In his third voyage, 1498, Columbus reached the continent of America, near the mouth of the Orinoco. Columbus died in 1506, after being treated by the Spanish court with the greatest ingratitude His body was pompously interred in the Cathedral of Seville; and over it was erected a monument, with the simple inscription that Columbus had given a new world to Castile and Leon. His remains were afterwards transported to the Island of Hayti, and buried in the Cathedral of St. Domingo, in 1536, whence, two hundred and sixty years afterwards, they were transferred to Havana.

In 1499, Alonzo de Ojeda sailed to the new continent, accompanied by a Florentine merchant named Amerigo Vespucci, under

whose direction the enterprise was chiefly conducted. Returning to Europe, he published an account of his adventures, and claimed the honor of being the first to discover the mainland of the New World. The imposture of Vespucci has long been known, and his dishonest narrative has in no degree injured the glory of Columbus. As to the honor of first reaching the shores of the new continent, it probably belongs to the English mariners, who, under Cabot, a Bristol seaman of Venetian parents, sailed along the coasts of North America from Labrador to Florida, 1498.

The oldest town in the United States is St. Augustine, in Florida, settled by the Spaniards in 1565; but the first permanent settlement made by the English was that of Jamestown, in Virginia, in 1603. In 1620 a body of emigrants, 101 in number, landed at or near Cape Cod, and in honor of their home in the Old World named their home in the New, Plymouth; and they are known to history as the Puritan Fathers. They were soon followed by others, and thus was laid the broad corner stone of civil and religious liberty The young colonies were, of course, subject to Great Britain; and as that country, with a policy very different from that pursued by her at present, was constantly engaged in war, its national debt was heavy and its own resources were so nearly exhausted as to make it a serious question from whence their money was to come; and the ministers decided to tax the provinces to raise the means to relieve the necessities of the parent Kingdom; and accordingly the notorious Stamp Act was passed in 1765; but the colonists refused to recognize or comply with it, on the ground of their having no representation in the Parliament, and the offensive act was repealed; but the right of taxation—denied by Americans—was insisted upon by the ministers, and the duty removed from one article was doubled upon others; and the resistance of the people resulted in the long struggle known as the Revolutionary War. When there seemed but two ways of settling grievances and wrongs that grew each hour more deep and oppressive—either by unconditional submission, or by separation from England—they chose the latter, and on the 4th of July, 1776, Congress, on behalf of the Colonies, declared their independence of Great Britain, and a committee was appointed, consisting of Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and John Living-

ston, to draw up a Declaration of Independence. The Colonists were aided by France and Spain, and at length the treaty of Versailles, 1783, acknowledged them "free, sovereign, and independent States." The Articles of Confederation, which had heretofore bound the Colonists, were found too incomplete and imperfect for a National Government, and a new Constitution, drawn up with the greatest care and deliberation, was adopted by the States, and George Washington was elected first President of the new American Republic, with John Adams Vice President, and they were re-elected in 1792.

FORMATION OF THE ORIGINAL UNION.

ON Monday, the 5th September, 1774, there were assembled at Carpenter's Hall, in the city of Philadelphia, a number of men who had been chosen and appointed by the several colonies in North America to hold a Congress for the purpose of discussing certain grievances imputed against the mother-country. This Congress resolved, on the next day, that each colony should have one vote only. On Tuesday, the 2d July, 1776, the Congress resolved, "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States," etc., etc.; and on Thursday, the 4th July, the whole Declaration of Independence having been agreed upon, it was publicly read to the people. Shortly after, on the 9th September, it was resolved that the words "United Colonies" should be no longer used, and that the "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA" should thenceforward be the style and title of the Union. On Saturday, the 15th November, 1777, "Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union of the United States of America" were agreed to by the State delegates, subject to the ratification of the State legislatures severally. Eight of the States ratified these articles on the 9th July, 1778; one on the 21st July; one on the 24th July; one on the 26th November of the same year; one on the 22d February, 1779; and the last one on the 1st of March, 1781. Here was a bond of union between thirteen independent States, whose delegates in Congress legislated for the general welfare, and executed certain powers, so far as they were permitted by the articles aforesaid. The following are the names of the Presidents of the Continental Congress from 1774 to 1788:

Peyton Randolph, Virginia	5th Sept. 1774
Henry Middleton, South Carolina	22d Oct. 1774
Peyton Randolph, Virginia	10th May, 1775
John Hancock, Massachusetts	24th May, 1776

Henry Laurens, South Carolina.....1st Nov. 1777
John Jay, New York.....10th Dec. 1778
Samuel Huntingdon, Connecticut.....28th Sept. 1779
Thomas McKean, Delaware.....10th July, 1781
John Hanson, Maryland.....5th Nov. 1781
Elias Boudinot, New Jersey.....4th Nov. 1782
Thomas Mifflin, Pennsylvania.....3d Nov. 1783
Richard Henry Lee, Virginia.....30th Nov. 1784
Nathaniel Gorham, Massachusetts.....6th Jan. 1786
Arthur St. Clair, Pennsylvania.....2d Feb. 1787
Cyrus Griffin, Virginia.....22d Jan. 1788

The seat of government was established as follows: at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, commencing September 5, 1774, and May 10, 1775; at Baltimore, Maryland, December 20, 1776; at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, March 4, 1777; at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, September 27, 1777; at York, Pennsylvania, September 30, 1777; at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 2, 1778; at Princeton, New Jersey, June 30, 1783; at Annapolis, Maryland, November 26, 1783; at Trenton, New Jersey, November 1, 1784; and at New York City, New York, January 11, 1785.

On the 4th March, 1789, the present Constitution, which had been adopted by a convention and ratified by the requisite number of States, went into operation

OUR CENTENNIAL HISTORY.

The history of the United States as a nation may be said to begin with the session of the First Colonial Congress. This body met at New York city on the 7th of October, 1765, Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts, being President. Nine colonies were represented by twenty-eight delegates.

The causes which had led to the appointment of these delegates were the oppressive laws enacted for the colonies by the British Parliament. As early as 1651 the "Navigation Act" had prohibited exports except in English vessels; in 1733, an enormous duty was imposed on imports of sugar and molasses; n 1764, this act was re-enacted and resulted in the complete destruction of the West India trade to the colonial ports; and finally, in 1765, the Stamp Act passed the House of Parliament, ordaining that all legal instruments, newspapers, almanacs, etc., should be stamped and pay duty. Oppressive restrictions on the freedom of the press had always existed, and while the struggling colonies were thus laden with unfair burdens, they were allowed no representatives in Parliament. The settlers had left England, for the most part, to seek that freedom of conscience, equality of rights before the law, and control of their own property, which had been denied them in the mother country. Hence they determined that such abuses should not be perpetuated in the New World, and the First Colonial Congress met to prepare a Declaration of Rights and a statement of grievances, declaring that the colonies should be taxed only by their own representatives.

In consequence of this action, the Stamp Act was repealed, but the policy of England was not altered. Other injurious and obnoxious laws were passed, the charter of Massachusetts subverted for resisting them, troops sent for their enforcement, and the feeling of bitterness constantly increased.

The Second Colonial Congress accordingly met at Philadelphia, September, 1774, under the name of the Continental Congress. It recommended that intercourse between the colonies and mother country should cease, and endorsed the spirit of opposition shown in Virginia and Massachusetts Thus supported, these colonies began to equip troops and accumulate supplies; while the home government hastened to dispatch to America several ships of the line and ten thousand troops to reduce the "rebels."

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

The long-foreseen conflict began by an engagement at Lexington and Concord, Mass., April 19, 1775, in which the British lost 280 men. This was the signal for a general uprising of the provincial troops. The forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point on Lake Champlain were seized, and an army of nearly 20,000 men assembled around Boston. On June 17, a detachment of these troops under Col. Prescott entrenched themselves on Breed's (now Bunker) Hill, which commanded the city. Generals Howe and Clinton, at the head of about 3,000 British soldiers, attacked them promptly, and after a hotly contested struggle forced the provincials to retire. But this success cost the victors more than a thousand men.

Meanwhile the Continental Congress had reassembled at Philadelphia, and organized the higher departments of the army, appointing General George Washington Commander-in-chief, and voting to raise and support 20,000 troops. With the assistance of General Gates, General Washington immediately devoted himself to organizing and equipping his men. The only other military operation of the year was an expedition against Quebec and Montreal, under General Montgomery, which resulted in his death and in the capture of most of his troops.

Early in the spring of 1776, Washington, by a masterly movement, obtained possession of a position commanding the city of Boston and compelled its immediate evacuation by the British troops under Sir William Howe. They embarked in their fleet and sailed southerly. Penetrating their design to land at New York, Washington prevented it by the promptness of his movements. Thus forced to abandon his plans, General Howe attempted to capture Charleston, but was driven off with severe loss.

On the first of July, the Declaration of Independence, prepared by a committee consisting of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingstone was submitted to the Continental Congress, and on the fourth was ratified by the delegates. Thus was the allegiance of the colonies to the British crown dissolved, and their freedom declared under the name of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

At this time (July 2) the British troops, largely reinforced, had taken possession of Staten Island, and were preparing to drive Washington and his army from New York. After several severe engagements and numerous strategic movements, they accom-

plished their design, and forced the Continental army to evacuate the city in November and take refuge in New Jersey. Promptly following up this advantage, Lord Cornwallis actively pursued the retreating enemy until they were driven beyond the Delaware river.

This was the gloomiest moment of the war. Death, disease, and desertion had reduced the Continental army to less than 3,000 men, and these were but half-clothed, poorly equipped, and often nearly starved. In this desperate strait, Washington determined on a daring movement as his only resource. Recrossing the Deleware amid floating ice and a driving snow storm, on Christmas night, he attacked Trenton, at that time occupied by a regiment of Hessians, and captured it with little loss. The British troops fell back in haste, and by a series of rapid movements were forced to positions near New York Harbor.

In the summer of 1777 the British forces at New York embarked in the fleet, sailed up Chesapeake Bay, and landed at the head of Elk river, Maryland. Washington hastened to meet them with an army better equipped than in the previous year,and numbering among his officers the gallant Marquis de Lafayette and Kosciusko. The opposing troops met on the banks of the Brandywine, Sept. 11, 1777, when a severe engagement resulted in the defeat of the provincial troops. They retired to the Schuylkill, and shortly after the British occupied Philadelphia.

This disaster was, however, more than counterbalanced by the capture of a British army under General Burgoyne, in New York. This officer, at the head of about 10,000 troops, had moved down from Canada and captured Ticonderoga, but was checked by the defeat of one of his detachments near Bennington, Vt., Aug, 16. After two severe engagements with the Continental troops under General Gates, he was surrounded at Saratoga, his supplies cut off, and on the 17th of October he was forced to surrender his army prisoners of war. This success greatly inspirited the Americans and supplied them with much needed means to continue the struggle. Several minor engagements ensued, after which the main army went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.

Early in 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded between the United States and France, in consequence of which the latter power sent a fleet and a number of troops to aid the Americans. The British during the summer deemed it prudent to concentrate at New York, and therefore evacuated Philadelphia. In their retreat across New Jersey the indecisive battle of Monmouth was fought. Subsequently they captured Savannah, Georgia, this being the only advantage they gained during the campaign.

In spite of the French allies, the year 1779 did not prove favorable to the American arms. The British forces overran and plundered Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, and the shores of

Connecticut. They incited the Indians to incursions upon the defenseless frontier settlements, and the Continental Congress had exhausted both its resources and its credit, apparently in vain.

Nor was the campaign of 1780 more reassuring. In April of that year, Charleston was assaulted and captured by Sir Henry Clinton, and South Carolina subjected to his arms. A strong force from the North under General Gates was defeated at Sandy Creek (Aug. 16); and a body of patriots under Col. Sumter was dispersed. In the North, the traitor, Benedict Arnold, covered his name with everlasting obloquy by his treacherous attempt to surrender West Point to the British Commander for a sum of money. Indeed, such was the discouragement and suffering which at the close of this year prevailed in the American army, that there was imminent danger that it would disband. This was prevented by the energetic action of Congress, and especially by the efficient labors of Robert Morris, superintendent of the treasury.

In 1781, General Greene took command of the southern army, and without gaining any decisive victory succeeded by a number of well-planned movements and attacks in confining the English forces at the close of the campaign to the cities of Savannah and Charleston. The Marquis de Lafayette, commanding in Virginia, manœuvered in opposition to the British troops under Lord Cornwallis, until in August they had retired to Yorktown. When this had been achieved, General Washington with the main army at once hastened south, and the French fleet proceeded to block up the York and James rivers. Cornwallis, seeing escape impossible, surrendered on the 19th of October, with 7,000 troops and his munitions of war.

This was the last important action of the war. Tired of the ineffectual struggle, the British nation clamored for a termination of hostilities. Neither the king nor the ministry was willing to acknowledge defeat, but they were at last obliged to yield. Not, however, until the last day of November, 1782, were the preliminary articles of peace signed.

The war over, the next important step was to decide upon the relation to each other of the several states which had shared in the conflict. As early as the summer of 1775, Benjamin Franklin had proposed to Congress articles of confederation; but at that time the step was deemed by the majority premature. In November, 1777, however, a plan of federation was adopted, and gradually ratified by all the states. Experience soon showed how defective it was, and in 1787 delegates from all the states, except Rhode Island, met at Philadelphia to prepare a new constitution. In the following year this was adopted by majorities of the people in eleven of the states, though not without strenuous opposition

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

IN CONGRESS—THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1776.

AGREEABLY to the order of the day, the Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole, to take into their further consideration the Declaration; and after some time the President resumed the chair, and Mr Harrison reported that the committee had agreed to a declaration, which they desired him to report. (The committee consisted of Jefferson, Franklin, John Adams, Sherman, and R. R. Livingston). The Declaration, being read, was agreed to as follows:

A DECLARATION

BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happi-

ness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having, in direct object, the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the danger of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose, obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreign-

ers; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harrass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military, independent of and superior to the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment, for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the powers of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign merce-

naries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts made by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war—in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in GENERAL CONGRESS assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as *FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES*,

they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which INDEPENDENT STATES may of right do. And, for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of DIVINE PROVIDENCE, we mutually pledge to each other, our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire.

JOSIAH BARTLETT,
WILLIAM WHIPPLE,
MATTHEW THORNTON

Rhode Island.

STEPHEN HOPKINS,
WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut.

ROGER SHERMAN,
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,
WILLIAM WILLIAMS,
OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York.

WILLIAM FLOYD,
PHILIP LIVINGSTON,
FRANCIS LEWIS,
LEWIS MORRIS.

New Jersey.

RICHARD STOCKTON,
JOHN WITHERSPOON,
FRANCIS HOPKINSON,
JOHN HART,
ABRAHAM CLARK.

Pennsylvania.

ROBERT MORRIS,
BENJAMIN RUSH,
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
JOHN MORTON,
GEORGE CLYMER,
JAMES SMITH,
GEORGE TAYLOR,
JAMES WILSON,
GEORGE ROSS,

Massachusetts Bay.

SAMUEL ADAMS,
JOHN ADAMS,
ROBERT TREAT PAINE,
ELBRIDGE GERRY,

Delaware.

CÆSAR RODNEY,
GEORGE READ,
THOMAS M'KEAN.

Maryland.

SAMUEL CHASE,
WILLIAM PACA,
THOMAS STONE,
CHARLES CARROLL, of Carrollton.

Virginia.

GEORGE WYTHE,
RICHARD HENRY LEE,
THOMAS JEFFERSON,
BENJAMIN HARRISON,
THOMAS NELSON, Jun.
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE
CARTER BRAXTON,

North Carolina.

WILLIAM HOOPER,
JOSEPH HEWES,
JOHN PENN.

South Carolina.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE,
THOMAS HEYWARD, Jun.
THOMAS LYNCH, Jun.
ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

Georgia.

BUTTON GWINNETT,
LYMAN HALL.
GEORGE WALTON.

A GARDEN IN THE HOLY LAND.

DEFEAT OF THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

WE the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION I.

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II.

1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The

number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.

1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof shall make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President pro tempore in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.

1 The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.

1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secresy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4 Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.

1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.

1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States. If he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journals of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.

The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and for the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post offices and post roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations,

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriations of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such parts of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; and,

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.

1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement

and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION X.

1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2 No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts, or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty on tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION I.

1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. (Annulled, see amendments, Article XII.)

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emoluments from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II.

1. The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS BEFORE THE COUNCIL OF SALAMANCA.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they may think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.

He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.

The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION I.

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and Inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.

1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.

1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION I.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which

such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.

1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one State under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III.

1. New States may be admitted by Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican form of Government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the Legislature or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several

States, shall call a Convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between States so ratifying the same.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall he be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and

district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII.

SECTION I.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. They shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President,

and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no persons have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the vote shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote. A quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

SECTION II.

The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President. A quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

SECTION III.

But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President, shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION I.

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION II.

Congress shall have power to enforce this Article by appropriate Legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION I.

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States. Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION II.

Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But whenever the right to vote at any election for electors of President and Vice-President, or for United States Representatives in Congress, executive and judicial officers, or the members of the Legislatures thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION III.

No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as

COLUMBUS BREAKING THE EGG.

an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof, but Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House remove such disability.

SECTION IV.

The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for the payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned; but neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims, shall be held illegal and void.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION I.

The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION II.

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

THE FATHERS OF THE REPUBLIC.

WE can not believe that man lives upon American soil, protected by our laws, and sheltered by the dear old flag beneath whose folds the patriots of '76 marched on to victory over the armies of the tyrant and oppressor, whose heart does not beat quicker with pride and affection as he glances back over the heroes who planted the germ of our national independence, and watered it with tears, and hallowed the soil only too often with their life-blood. We look at their mighty works and say, surely, "there were giants in those days." Gigantic was the task which those brave men performed, and glorious have been the results of their efforts.

From the day when the first blow fell upon the astonished believers in the divine right of kings, to the day when, at the Court of Versailles, the reluctant lion of the House of Hanover was compelled to sign the Act which gave to the colonists a standing amongst the nations of the earth, their days and nights were given to watching, to fighting and to prayer. They had already endured all that men could endure—suffered all that men could suffer—borne all that men could bear; and now, with the fire of liberty kindled in their souls, they gathered their forces and consecrated their lives, their property and their all to the cause that to them was dearer than all others.

There are names that we have inscribed high on the roll of fame; there are names which we revere above all other names on earth—names that we associate with all that is most sacred to freemen, and which will live in the councils of our nation while we have a national existence. In the constellation of names which succeeding generations delight to remember and honor, none are brighter than those of WASHINGTON, JEFFERSON, HANCOCK,

FRANKLIN, or JOHN ADAMS, and we feel a justifiable pride in the words and sentiments of that Declaration of Independence which made the memory of its framers immortal. Founded upon the principles of justice—recognizing the right of all men to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," it is not strange that the nation uprose to defend a government that declared it derived all "power from the consent of the governed;" nor that they bore hardships, privation, suffering and toil as became those who defended hearthstone and roof-tree; and above all, those who defended the cradle wherein the young child Liberty slumbered.

At that time the soldiers were but scantily fed, and more scantily clothed, but Washington bore with them the heat of the long march under a scorching sun and the severities of the winter campaign; and when the footprints of the worn-out, exhausted troopers stained the unsullied snow of Valley Forge, the commander-in-chief and his subaltern officers were scarcely better clad. Yet no man murmured or complained, for the freedom that should be the heirloom and birthright of their children's children for all generations to come was entrusted to their keeping.

Such sublime devotion to a cause that seemed almost hopeless—such unselfish patriotism and love for their country—such unfaltering courage, even when defeated at every step, finds no parallel in history. It was no half-way victory they sought, and no half-way concession would satisfy them. They would be untrammeled by foreign power—they would be unrestrained by foreign laws—unrestricted by foreign intervention. Their rivers should run free to the sea—their ships of commerce should dot every ocean—their flag should be recognized by every government. No usurper's foot should press our green sward—no tyrant army garrison our forts—no tyrant's navy guard our harbors. Our blue skies should bend over no foeman's minions—our fresh, wild winds, that swept mountain and lake and boundless prairie, should kiss no foeman's cheek. With God for their leader, "Liberty" for their battle-cry, they were victorious, and to-day, with all they gained for us still preserved, our borders extended and our wealth increased an hundred fold, we reverently remember to whom, under God, we owe all this, and treasure the memory of the Fathers of the Republic as a sacred thing. Our gratitude is only measurable by our debt to them.

PRESIDENTIAL ADMINISTRATIONS.

As the new government made provision for the election of officers, George Washington was chosen President of the United States, and John Adams, Vice-president.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

April 30, 1789, to March 4, 1797.—During the administration of Washington the attention of Congress was chiefly devoted to organizing the government on a firm basis. A national judiciary was established; the departments of state, of the treasury and of war were constituted; provisions for levying duties and for internal taxation were framed; a United States Bank was organized; and a Federal loan negotiated in Europe. These measures were not all received with equal approval by the people. Especially that of levying a duty on domestic distilled spirits was unpopular with the inhabitants of western Pennsylvania, with whom whisky was a staple manufacture. They opposed the collection of the tax with arms in their hands, and not until a large military force was sent against them did they submit. This is known as the "Whisky Insurrection" (1791). It was not the only service the military were called upon to perform under this administration. The Indians of the Ohio valley attacked the frontier settlements in 1790, and defeated the regular troops under General Harmar, 1790, and General St. Clair, in 1791. At length, in 1893, in a decisive battle on the Maumee river, General Wayne completely routed them and broke their power. During this period the country constantly increased in prosperity, and the states of North Carolina, Vermont, Tennessee and Kentucky were admitted to the Union.

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION (1797 TO 1801).

Washington had been elected by the unanimous voice of the people. But when he retired from office, the two great parties, the Federalists, who were conservative, attached to the views of Washington, and opposed to the sentiments of the French Revolution, and Anti-federalists, radical Democrats, each struggled for the mastery, John Adams, the Federal candidate was elected President, and Thomas Jefferson, Vice-president, Early in this administration, war with France was threatened. Provoked because they could not embroil the United States in a war with England, the French Directory insulted the American Envoy at Paris, authorized the capture of American Vessels by

French cruisers, and sent vessels of war to the American coast. Congress took active measures of defense. An army and navy were organized, but fortunately, before actual hostilities broke out, the French Directory made overtures of peace. Washington, who had been appointed as commander of the small standing army which had been raised, did not live to witness the restoration of peace. On the 14th of December, 1799, he died at his residence at Mt. Vernon, Va., after a short illness, at the age of sixty-eight years. During the following summer the seat of government was removed from Philadelphia to the city which had been named after him, and the site of which he had assisted in choosing. His death, together with the unpopularity of the "alien and sedition laws," aimed at rebel aliens and Government libeles, prepared the way for the defeat of the Federalists at the next presidential campaign.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1801 TO 1809).

After a close contest Thomas Jefferson was elected President, Aaron Burr, Vice-president, both belonging to the Anti-federal or Democratic party. The internal revenue system was at once abolished, and other laws, distasteful to the party now in power abolished. In 1802 Ohio was admitted as a state, and in the next year Louisiana was purchased from France, for $15,000,000. The same year Commodore Preble was sent against pirates of the Barbary coast. After two years of desultory conflict, favorable terms of peace were offered by the bashaw and accepted by the United States. In 1807, the celebrated trial of Aaron Burr, Vice-president under the previous administration, took place. He was arrested on the charge of treason, but not convicted.

The wars of France and England, and especially the unjust claims put forward by the latter, constantly increased the resentment felt toward the latter power by the Americans. An unprovoked attack on the American frigate Chesapeake, in 1807; the seizure of American sailors by press-gangs; the injustice of the British "orders in council," which exposed neutral vessels trading with France to capture; and the inciting of the western Indians by British emissaries, combined to convince the people that their only mode of redress was a declaration of war. This alternative, however, was postponed to the last, and was not adopted until

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION (1809 TO 1817).

James Madison belonged to the same party as his predecessor, and continued his policy. After an ineffectual attempt to obtain justice from Great Britain, the President, in accordance with the action of Congress, issued a proclamation of war, June 19, 1812.

THE WAR OF 1812–1814.

In the fall of the previous year (Nov., 1811), Gen. William Henry Harrison succeeded in crushing the power of the hostile Indians of the West, at the bloody and obstinately-contested battle of Tippecanoe, in Indiana. But the campaign of 1812 did not continue such success. The Americans lost the posts of Mackinaw and Detroit, and were defeated at Queenstown, on the Niagara river. Fortunately, the navy more than counterbalanced these reverses. Within seven months from the declaration of war, five hundred British vessels and three frigates were captured by the Americans, with an average loss of but one sailor to eight of the enemy. Captain Isaac Hull, and Commodores Decatur and Bainbridge especially distinguished themselves in these engagements; but the large majority of prizes were taken by "privateers," fitted out by citizens.

In the beginning of 1813, the American forces were ranged in three divisions, one under General Harrison, on Lake Erie, the second under General Dearborn, on Lake Ontario, the third under General Wade, on Lake Champlain. Commodore Perry commanded the American squadron on Lake Erie, which distinguished itself, on Sep. 10th, by a brilliant victory over the British fleet. The troops of Harrison immediately embarked, crossed the lake, and gained a complete victory over the English soldiery, under General Proctor, at the battle of the Thames (Oct. 5). In this engagement the renowned Indian warrior, Tecumseh, was slain. His death destroyed the power of the Indians of the north, while in the decisive battle of Horse Shoe Bend, in Georgia, the following March, General Jackson humbled the southern tribes.

Gen. Dearborn, in the meanwhile, attacked and captured York in Canada, and the English in return made a descent on Sackett's Harbor. Several other engagements occurred on the northern frontier, but none of a decisive character.

At sea, the fortunes of war were not so much in favor of the Americans as previously. In February the Hornet under Captain Lawrence, destroyed the British brig Peacock, but in the following June that brave officer was killed and his ship captured in an engagement with the frigate Shannon. His last words were: "Don't give up the sbip," which has become the motto of our navy. The British commerce, however, suffered severely by the numerous privateers which scoured the seas capturing British merchantmen.

In the following year, 1814, Generals Winfield Scott and Ripley crossed Niagara River at the head of about 3,000 men, seized Fort Erie, and on the 25th of July engaged the British forces under General Drummond at Lundy's Lane. This was the most obstinate battle of the war. It resulted favorably for the American forces, but at a loss of nearly one-third their number. Still

more disastrous to the British was the battle of Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, which took place Sept. 11, 1814. Their land forces attacked the United States troops under General Macomb, while their fleet engaged that of Commodore MacDonough, lying in the harbor. They signally failed in both attempts, losing most of their vessels and about 2,500 men.

Meanwhile the British fleet on the Atlantic coast carried on a series of depredation on the defenseless seaport towns. Hampton, on the Cheaspeake, was burned; a force of 5,000 marines proceeded to Washington, and having burned the Capitol, President's House, and other public buildings, hastily retreated (Aug. 24). Alexandria was plundered, and Baltimore attacked, but unsuccessfully.

General Andrew Jackson, commanding at the south, having driven the English troops from Pensacola, repaired to New Orleans to repel a large force under General Packenham. This he did most victoriously at the battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815, in which 12,000 British troops were repulsed, with a loss of nearly 2,000 dead and wounded, by 6,000 American militia, whose dead and wounded amounted to only *thirteen.* This was the last important action of the war. Indeed, before it took place a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent by commissioners of the two powers (Dec. 24, 1814). The objects for which the United States has been fighting were virtually conceded.

In the following year (1815) Commodore Decatur still further established the reputation of the American navy by the reduction of Tunis and Tripoli, whose piratical inhabitants had been plundering our merchantmen.

The war left the country in debt $75,000,000, and to aid in restoring the finances, early in 1816 a second national bank was established, with a capital of $35,000,000, and a charter to continue in force 20 years.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE (1817 to 1825).

The next administration shared the political views of that which preceded it, but was marked by less bitterness and more general good feeling. The only warlike event was an invasion of Florida, then a Spanish colony, by General Jackson, in pursuit of hostile Indians. This might have given rise to serious trouble, but in 1821 Spain ceded east and west Florida to the United States, for $5,000,000. The slavery question at this time began to assume threatening proportions. In Aug., 1821, the "Missouri Compromise" was passed, by which slavery was to be excluded from all territory west of the Mississippi, north of 36° 30', except in Missouri. This pacified the opposing parties for a time. President Monroe is, perhaps, best remembered for his maintenance of the "Monroe doctrine." This is expressed in his message of Dec. 2,

1823, and is as follows: "We owe it to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and European powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system of government to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety."

JOHN Q. ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION (1825 to 1829).

Freed from external foes, and not yet divided by party strife, the country now enjoyed remarkable prosperity. Internal improvements on a large scale commenced, and the first railroad (at Quincy, Mass.,) was constructed. The Erie Canal was finished by the state of New York, and the commerce and manufactures of the country rapidly increased. The President pursued the same policy as his father, John Adams, which was "Whig" or "Republican." It is mentioned as a remarkable coincidence that on the fiftieth anniversary of American Independence, which occurred July 4, 1826, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, so long the heads of the opposing political parties, both died.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1829 to 1837.)

After an exciting political campaign General Andrew Jackson was elected president by the Democratic party. His first action was to remove numerous office-holders and appoint in their place his political friends. In 1832, John C. Calhoun, who had been elected Vice-president, resigned that office, and representing South Carolina in Senate, declared the protective tariff (originally introduced by the south, but grown unplatable to it) null and void, and threatened secession if the general government attempted to execute it in South Carolina. The President at once ordered a vessel of war and troops to Charleston to collect the revenue by force, if necessary. Fortunately this resort was avoided and Henry Clay introduced a compromise measure by which the strife was adjusted. In the same year the President vetoed the extension of the charter of the United States Bank, which he termed "the scourge of the people," and in 1833 removed the government funds deposited in that institution—actions which excited the bitterest animadversion.

Hostilities with the Indians constantly occupied the regular troops. On the western frontier, in Illinois and Wisconsin, the tribes assembled under the chief, Black Hawk, in 1832, but were dispersed and their leader captured. In 1835 and 1838, the Cherokees were after some difficulty removed west of the Mississipi; while the Creeks and Seminoles, in Florida, refusing to emigrate, collected under Osceola, and for seven years successfully resisted the troops sent against them. At length Colonel Zachary Taylor compelled their submission.

LISBON, PORTUGAL. THE PORT FROM WHICH COLUMBUS SET SAIL.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION (1837 to 1841).

The successor of Jackson was Martin Van Buren, of New York, also a Democrat. Early in his administration (1837) the country was overwhelmed by a disastrous and general mercantile failure, amounting to hundreds of millions of dollars. This was the direct consequence of land speculations and long credits. All the banks suspended specie payment, and Mississippi and Florida repudiated the debts of their commonwealths. An independent United States treasury, with sub-treasury offices in New York and other ports of collection, was organized in 1839. Treasury notes to the amount of $10,000,000 were authorized to be issued. These measures, however, did not succeed in restoring health to trade; and as the disasters of the country were attributed to the action of the Democratic party, the result in the next presidential election was the success of the Whigs by a majority much larger than was expected by any one.

HARRISON AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATIONS (1841 to 1845).

General Harrison, the "hero of the Thames and Tippecanoe," lived but a month after his inauguration, and Mr. Tyler, the Vice-president, became acting President. The sub-treasury bill was repealed, and a general bankrupt act declared, but as Mr. Tyler vetoed two separate bills chartering a U. S. bank, he was denounced in the strongest terms by the party which had elected him, and his entire cabinet resigned except Daniel Webster, Secretary of State. Nevertheless, the finances of the country rapidly improved. In 1842 a treaty was negotiated with Great Britain, relating to the N. W. boundary of the United States, or the Oregon line. Late in this administration, Texas, a province of Mexico, settled chiefly by emigrants from the United States, which had declared its independence, applied for admission into the Union. This was strongly resisted by the Whig party, but early in 1845 Congress authorized the President to negotiate with Texas terms of annexation.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION (1845 to 1849).

The contest of 1844 was between Henry Clay, the Whig candidate, and James K. Polk, who was elected by the Democrats. The action of Congress with reference to Texas necessarily led to a rupture with Mexico, and that her troops might not move upon that state in an unprepared condition, General Taylor was ordered to lead his forces to the Rio Grande, and a naval squadron was dispatched to the Gulf of Mexico to support him.

THE MEXICAN WAR.

Hostilities began by an attack on a body of United States dragoons, April 27, 1846, on the east bank of the Rio Grande, above Matamoras. On the 8th and 9th of May, General Taylor

fought the successful battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, which drove the Mexicans beyond the river. When the news of these engagements reached Washington, the President was authorized to call out 50,000 volunteers, and a warlike enthusiasm was displayed in all the states. The army was not ready for action until the fall of 1846. It was then divided into three columns, the main body under General Taylor to march upon Monterey, while a second division under General Wool was to attack Chihuahua, and the third, under General Kearney, was to direct its course to Santa Fe. These objects were promptly accomplished, Monterey surrendering on the 24th Sept., Santa Fe shortly previous, and Chihuahua on the 28th of Feb., 1847. Meanwhile Captain J. C. Fremont, of the typographical engineers, with several other officers, had possessed himself of San Francisco, and gained the entire control of Upper California.

As in Feb., 1847, General Taylor's forces had become reduced to less than 5,000 men by detachments sent elsewhere, Mexican General Santa Anna considered this a favorable moment to attack him, and on the 23d of that month assaulted his works on the heights of Buena Vista, three miles south of Saltillo, with an army of 20,000 men. In spite of this numerical superiority he was driven in disorder from the field, with a loss of more than 1,500 men. A few days after this event, General Scott at the head of 12,000 men landed near Vera Cruz (March 9, 1847), and began to invest the city. It yielded after a vigorous resistance on the 29th, and shortly afterward the troops were put in motion for the Mexican capital. Santa Anna resisted them on the heights of Cerro Gordo, but was routed with heavy loss (April 18). The cities of Jalapa and Puebla fell, and on the 18th of August the entire army, numbering 9,000 men reached a position ten miles from the city of Mexico. Here they were opposed by over 30,000 Mexicans under Santa Anna. With desperate bravery they carried by assault the batteries on the heights of Contreras, the fortified post of Cherubusco, and the fortress of Chapultapec, which had been deemed impregnable. Terrified by these losses, Santa Anna and the civil officers of the government fled from the city by night, the army dissolved, and on the 14th of September the American flag floated over the national palace of Mexico. This ended the war and on February 22, 1848, a treaty of peace was concluded between the two powers. The United States obtained New Mexico and California, and agreed to pay to and for Mexico about $18,000,000.

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATIONS (1849 to 1853).

The next presidential canvass resulted in the election of General Zachary Taylor, the Whig nominee, but of moderate views. The central political question of the day was whether slavery

should be carried into the new territories. This was strenuously opposed by the majority in the north, and as earnestly advocated by the south. The "compromise" measures, finally passed by Congress, which excluded slavery from California, left it optional with the people of Utah and New Mexico, and allowed owners to capture fugitive slaves in free states, were equally disliked by each party. Secession conventions were held in South Carolina and Mississippi, and armed resistance to the Fugitive Slave Law advocated in the north.

Pending this discussion, President Taylor died, July 9, 1850, and the Vice-president, Millard Fillmore, was installed as acting President.

The discovery of the rich gold deposits of California at this time attracted general attention throughout the world, and led to a vast emigration to that territory.

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION (1853 to 1857).

In 1852 Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, Democratic candidate for President, was elected over General Winfield Scott, the candidate of the Whig party. The Missouri Compromise was abrogated in 1854. Violent collisions occurred in Kansas between the Free-Soil and Pro-Slavery parties. In March of same year a commercial treaty was effected with Japan. The discussions which sought to give new efficacy to the Fugitive Slave Law, and which culminated on March 6th, 1857, in the famous Dred Scott decision, delivered by Chief Justice Taney, greatly increased party excitement, and intensified the struggle between the friends and opponents of slavery. Under such circumstances the campaign of 1856 took place, the Democratic candidate being James Buchanan and the Free-Soil candidate, General John C. Fremont. The former was elected.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION (1857 to 1861).

Party lines became more closely drawn upon the right of extending slavery into the territories, and the capture of fugitives on free soil. In Kansas and Nebraska bloody collisions between the exponents of free and slave ideas were not infrequent. Mr. Buchanan had great trouble with his territorial governors, especially of Kansas. August 24, 1857, began the great commercial panic, which, by December 25, of same year, resulted in 5,123 failures, with an aggregate loss of $291,757,000. The Utah expedition was the only army movement of importance during 1857-58. October 17, 1859, occured the affair at Harper's Ferry, which resulted in the hanging of John Brown. The presidential canvass of 1860 found the Democratic party divided, one faction claiming that slavery existed by constitutional right in all the territories, the other that the question of its existence depended on the will of

the people thereof. Of the former, John C. Breckenridge became the candidate for the presidency; of the latter, Stephen A. Douglas, while Abraham Lincoln became the candidate of the new Republican party, and John Bell of the conservative or compromise elements of both parties. Mr. Lincoln was chosen (November 6, 1860) by a large majority. His election was the signal for a movement on the part of the southern states in favor of a separate government. On November 7, on receipt of thenews of the election, the "Palmetto Flag" was hoisted on the shipping in Charleston Harbor. November 10, the Legislature of South Carolina introduced a bill to raise and equip 10,000 men, and one ordering a convention to consider the question of secession. Her Senators both resigned. November 18, the Georgia Legislature appropriated $1,000,000 to arm the state. Major Anderson was sent to Fort Moultrie to relieve Colonel Gardner. December 1, Florida Legislature ordered a secession convention. December 3, Congress met, and Mr. Buchanan, in his message, announced the doctrine that while no state had the right to secede, the Federal government was powerless to prevent secession. December 10, Howell Cobb, Secretary of the Treasury, and Senator Clay, of Alabama, resigned.

December 13, the President refused to reinforce the forts in Charleston Harbor. December 14, General Cass, Secretary of State, resigned. December 20, South Carolina seceded. December 22, the Crittenden compromise voted down in the Senate. December 24, South Carolina members of Congress resigned. December 26, Major Anderson took possession of Fort Sumter. The President refused to see the South Carolina commissioners. December 28, South Carolina seized the government property in Charleston, including Castle Pickney and Fort Moultrie. December 29, John B. Floyd, Secretary of War, resigned. January 2, 1861, Governor Ellis, of North Carolina, seized Fort Macon, and Georgia troops seized Forts Pulaski and Jackson and the United States Arsenal at Savannah. January 4, Governor Moore, of Alabama, seized Fort Morgan and the United States Arsenal at Mobile. January 8, Jacob Thompson, Secretary of the Interior, resigned. January 9, steamer Star of the West fired on by Confederates in Charleston Harbor. Mississippi seceded. January 10, Florida seceded. The state seized Fort McRae. January 11, Alabama seceded. January 13, Florida troops seized Pensacola Navy Yard and Fort Barancas. January 18, Virginia appropriated $1,000,000 for state defense. January 19, Georgia seceded. January 21, Alabama members of Congress resigned

January 23, Georgia members of Congress resigned. January 24, Confederates seized United States Arsenal at Augusta. January 26, Louisiana seceded. January 30, North Carolina Legislature submitted the secession question to the people, and on February 1, the Texas Convention passed an ordinance of secession

and submitted it to the people. The Mint and Custom House seized in New Orleans. February 4, delegates met at Montgomery, Alabama, to form a Confederate Government. Peace Congress met in Washington, and after a stormy session adjourned without results. February 9, Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens elected provisional President and Vice-president of Southern Confederacy. February 19, Confederates seized Fort Kearney in Kansas. February 23, General Twiggs surrendered government property in Texas, valued at $1,200,000.

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION—THE WAR OF THE REBELLION.

March 4, 1861, Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated. Texas seceded, the people having so voted. 5th, Beauregard took command of the Confederate forces. April 12, Fort Sumpter was bombarded. 15th the President issued proclamation commanding all persons in arms against the government to disperse in twenty days, and calling for 75,000 volunteers. 16th, the Governors of Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee and Missouri refused to furnish troops under the President's call. The Confederate government called for 32,000 men. 17th, Virginia seceded and sent troops to take Harper's Ferry and Gosport Navy Yard. Jefferson Davis offered letters of marque and reprisal to privateers. 18th, Colonel Cake, with 400 of Penna. 25th Regt., arrived in Washington. 19th, Mass. 6th Regt. attacked by a mob in Baltimore. The ports of the Southern states declared in a state of blockade.

May 1st, Mr. Lincoln called for 42,000 three year volunteers; 22,000 troops for the regular army, and 18,000 seamen. May 4th, General McClellan placed in command of Department of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. May 18th, Department of Virginia created and placed under command of General Butler. 20th, North Carolina seceded. 21st, Tennessee seceded. 24th, 13,000 Federal troops crossed the Potomac, occupying Arlington and Alexandria. Colonel Ellsworth killed. June 10th, battle of Big Bethel. 17th, West Virginia declared independent of eastern portion by Wheeling Convention. Defeat of the Confederates at Boonville, Missouri. 20th, McClellan assumed command in West Virgnia. July 1st, First war loan of the United States government $250,000,000. 5th, Battle of Carthage, Missouri; defeat of Federal troops under Col. Sigel. 6th, Fremont took charge of Western Department. 11th, Expulsion, of southern Senators from United States Senate. 12th, Federal victory at Rich Mt. under Rosencrans. 13th, Confederates, under Gen. Garnett, defeated at Garrick's Ford, Virginia. 16th, President Lincoln authorized to call for 500,000 men. 18th, Gen. Dix took charge of Department of Maryland. 20th, Confederate Congress met at Richmond. 21st, Gen. McDowell defeated at Bull Run. 22d, McClellan took command of the Army of the Potomac. August 10th, Battle of Wilson Creek, Missouri;

death of Gen. Lyon. 16th, All commercial relations with Confederate States interdicted. 29th, Forts Hatteras and Clark, North Carolina, captured by Federals. September 6th, Grant took possession of Paducah, Kentucky. 10th, Rosencrans defeated Floyd near Carnifax Ferry, Virginia. October 21st, Col. Baker defeated at Ball's Bluff and Gen. Zollicoffer at Camp Wild Cat, Kentucky. 25th, Defeat of Confederates at Romney, Virginia. November 1st, Resignation of Gen. Scott and appointment of Gen. McClellan. 2d, Gen. Hunter succeeded Fremont, in the West. 11th, Gen. Halleck succeeded Gen. Hunter. 30th, England demanded the liberation of Mason and Slidell; Jefferson Davis elected President of the Confederate States. December 17th, Drawn battle at Munfordsville, Kentucky. 18th, Capture of 1,300 Confederates at Milford, Missouri, by Gen. Pope. 20th, Confederate defeat at Drainsville, by Gen. McCall.

January 7th, 1862, second Confederate defeat at Romney. 11th, Stanton appointed Secretary of War; defeat of Confederate gun-boats at Columbus. 19th, Defeat of Confederates at Mill Springs, Kentucky; Gen. Zollicoffer killed. 29th, French and English troops land at Vera Cruz and march towards Mexico. February 6th, Fort Henry, on Mississippi River surrendered to Federal Fleet under Commodore Foote. 8th, Gen. Burnside captured six forts on Roanoke Island. 10th, Destruction of confederate gun-boats on Tennessee R. 15th, Fort Donelson attacked by 40,000 Federal troops under Gen. Grant. 16th, Fort Donelson surrendered 15,000 prisoners, 40 cannon, and munitions. 22d, Inauguration of President and Vice-president of Southern Confederacy. March 8th, Confederates defeated at Pea Ridge; destruction of Cumberland and Congress at Hampton Roads by confederate iron-clad Merrimac. 9th, Battle between Merrimac and Monitor; the former compelled to retire. The first contest between iron-clads: reaction against wooden vessels. 13th, Confederates evacuated New Madrid, Missouri. 14th, Federal victory at Newbern, North Carolina, under Burnside. 16th, Com. Foote began attack on Island No. 10; Confederates defeated at Cumberland Mountain, Kentucky. 18th, Confederates defeated at Salem, Arkansas. 23d, Battle of Winchester; Confederates defeated. April 6th, 7th, Battle of Pittsburgh Landing or Shiloh; Grant, assisted by Buell, drove Confederates to their fortifications at Corinth; Federal loss, 13,100. Confederate Gen. Johnson killed. 8th, Com. Foote captured Island No. 10 with 5,000 prisoners, 100 siege guns, 24 field pieces and 5,000 small arms. 11th, Slavery abolished in District of Columbia. 28th, Com. Farragut took possession of New Orleans. May 5th, Gens. Hancock and Hooker defeated the Confederates at Williamsburgh, Virginia. 7th, Battle of West Point, Virginia, in which the Confederates under Lee suffered defeat at the hands of Gens. Franklin and Sedgwick. 9th,

Confederates evacuated Pensacola. 10th, Federal forces took possession of Norfolk, Virginia. 11th, Iron-clad Merrimac blown up to prevent her capture. 12th, Natchez surrendered to Com. Farragut. 16th, Union gun-boats repulsed at Fort Darling. May 25th, Defeat of Gen. Banks at Winchester, Virginia. 31st, Union defeat at Fair Oaks. June 1st, Battle of Fair Oaks renewed; Confederates defeated. 6th, Memphis surrendered to Union troops. 8th, Stonewall Jackson defeated at Cross Keys, Virginia. 26th, Concentration of Federal troops about Richmond and commencement of six days' fight. Undecisive battle of Mechanicsville. Pope took command of Army of Virginia. 27th, Bombardment of Vicksburg commenced. Fremont relieved of his command. Federal troops driven back at Richmond. White House evacuated. 28th, Confederates repulsed on the Chickahominy. Retreat of Federal troops at night. 29th, Confederates defeated at Peach Orchard; Federals defeated at Savage Station and retreated. 30th, Heavy Battle of White Oak Swamp. July 1st, Battle of Malvern Hill. Last of the six days' fight. The President called for 300,000 volunteers. 11th, Gen. Halleck appointed commander of the United States forces. July 13th, 17th, Emancipation and confiscation acts sanctioned by the President. August 4th, A draft of 300,000 men ordered. 9th Battle of Cedar Mountain. 16th, Gen. McClellan evacuated Harrison's Landing. 26th, Gen. Ewell drove Union troops from Manassas. 30th, Union troops defeated at Richmond, Kentucky. Confederates defeated at Bolivar, Tennessee. Second battle of Bull Run. Union forces under General Pope defeated. September 1st, Union victory at Chantilla, Virginia. 2d, General McClellan took command of Army of Washington. 5th, Confederate army began to cross the Potomac into Maryland. September 14th, Battle of South Mountain. The Confederates retreated toward the Potomac. 15th, Surrender of Harper's Ferry to Confederates after two days' fighting. 17th, Battle of Antietam; retreat of Confederates with a loss of 14,000 men. 18th, Confederates re-crossed the Potomac into Virginia. 19th, Confederate defeat at Iuka, Mississippi. 22d, Emancipation Proclamation by the President. 25th, Suspension of Habeas Corpus. October 4th, Defeat of Confederates at Corinth, Mississippi. 8th, Battle of Perryville, Kentucky. Confederates retreated during the night. 30th, Gen. Rosencrans assumed command of the Army of the Cumberland. November 5th, Gen. McClellan succeeded in command of the Army of the Potomac by Gen. Burnside. 28th, Defeat of Confederates at Cane Hill, Arkansas. December 13th, Battle of Fredericksburgh, Virginia, and repulse of Union troops under Sumner, Hooker and Franklin. 14th, Banks succeeded Butler in command of New Orleans. 28th, Second attack on Vicksburg by army and gun-boats. Fed-

eral line established within 2½ mls. of the city. 31st, Heavy battle of Murfreesborough or Stone River. Federal troops driven back, but were reinforced and repulsed the Confederates.

January 1st, 1863, Re-publication of the emancipation proclamation. 3d, Confederate army retreated from Murfreesborough. Federal army withdrawn from Vicksburgh. 10th, Capture of the Arkansas Post with 7,000 prisoners, by Union gun-boats and army. 22d, Third attack on Vicksburgh. 28th, Gen. Hooker succeeded Burnside in command of Army of Potomac. 31st, Repulse of Confederates at Blackwater, Virginia. April 7th, Attack upon Charleston and withdrawal of Federal fleet. 17th, Banks moved on his Red River expedition. May 3d, Second defeat of Federals at Fredericksburgh, and their retreat on the 5th. Stonewall Jackson mortally wounded. 13th, Defeat of Gen. Johnston at Jackson, Mississippi, by Grant, and capture of the place. 15th, Grant defeated Pemberton at Baker's Creek, Mississippi. 17th, Second defeat of same by same at Big Black River. 18th, Vicksburgh invested by Federal troops under Grant and Admiral Porter. June 17th, Ram Atlanta captured by Weehawken off South Carolina coast. 23d, Second defeat of Confederates at Big Black River, Mississippi. 29th, Gen. Meade succeeded Hooker in command of Army of Potomac. July 1st, 2d and 3d, Defeat of Confederates at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, under Lee, by Gen. Meade. 4th, Surrender of Vicksburgh by Pemberton, with 27,000 prisoners, 132 cannon and 50,000 small arms. 8th, Surrender of Port Hudson to Gen. Banks, 7,000 men, 60 cannon and 10,000 arms. 17th, Johnston defeated at Jackson, Mississippi, by Sherman. Natchez captured by Gen. Ransom. Confederate troops driven back from Kentucky and Tennessee; concentrated at Chicamauga, where, under Bragg, they were attacked. September 19th, Union army repulsed and driven to Chattanooga. October 20th, Departments of Cumberland and Mississippi consolidated and placed under command of Gen. Grant. Thomas succeeded Rosencrans. November 25th, Confederate army under Bragg badly defeated at Chattanooga. 29th, Repulse of Confederates at Knoxville. December 4th, Longstreet compelled to retire from Siege of Knoxville.

February 1st, 1864, A draft for 500,000 men ordered. 15th, Gen. Sherman carried his raid to Meridian, Mississippi. March 8th, Gen. Grant commissioned Lieutenant-General. 12th, Assigned to command of United States army. 25th, Capture and destruction of Paducah by Forrest. April 12th, massacre at Fort Pillow by confederate Gen. Forrest. May 6th, Grant crossed the Rapidan. Battle of the Wilderness. Retreat of Lee toward Richmond. 9th, Further defeat and retreat of Lee's forces. 12th, Union victory at Spottsylvania; capture of 4,000 prisoners and 25 cannon. 13th, Sheridan reached the rear of confederate army at

COLUMBUS QUELLING THE MUTINY ON BOARD THE SANTA MARIA.

Hanover Junction and destroyed 1,000,000 rations. 15th, Johnston forced to evacuate Resaca. 23d, Confederate army flanked at Spottsylvania Court House and forced to evacuate. June 3d, Rout of Confederates at Coal Harbor. 5th, Sherman flanked Johnston and captured Ackworth. 28th, Grant's army took possession of Weldon Railroad and invested Richmond and Petersburgh. July 22d, Confederate defeat at Atlanta. September 2d, Federal troops took possession of Atlanta. 19th, Victory of Sheridan over Confederates in Shenandoah Valley. November 8th, The presidential election, Lincoln and Johnson received 212 and McClellan and Pendleton 21 electoral votes. McClellan resigned his army command. 16th, Sherman began his march to the Atlantic. December 16th, Thomas Defeated the confederate forces at Nashville, capturing a large number of guns and prisoners. 20th Breckinridge defeated. in West Virginia. 21st, Savannah captured by Sherman. 24th, Union troops and gun-boats make an unsuccessful attack on Fort Fisher. 29th, Hood's army crossed the Tennessee R., ending the campaign in Tennessee.

January 8th, 1865, Butler succeeded by Ord in command of Army of the James River. 16th, Fort Fisher captured by Federals. 20th, Corinth evacuated by Confederates. February 17th, Columbia, South Carolina, taken by Sherman. 18th, Charleston, South Carolina occupied by Federal forces. 22d, Wilmington, North Carolina, taken by Gen. Schofield. March 2d, Early and forces captured by Sheridan, near Staunton, Virginia. 4th, Inauguration of Lincoln and Johnson. 17th, Confederate Congress adjourned sine die. April 2d, Lee's Lines at Petersburg, carried. 3d, Richmond captured by Federal forces. 9th, Surrender of Confederate army at Appomattox and end of the war. 14th, President Lincoln shot by J. Wilkes Booth at Ford's Theatre, Washington 15th, Death of President Lincoln. Johnson sworn in as President. 26th, Surrender of Confederate Gen. Johnston. May 10th, Capture of Jefferson Davis at Irwinville, Georgia.

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1865–1869).

President Johnson developed a policy at variance with the wishes of those who had supported him for Vice-president. So unsatisfactory did his administration become to the majority, that proceedings in impeachment were begun, but they failed. His antagonism with Congress and the consequent failure to settle many of the pressing questions of state and finance evolved by the war, paved the way for an easy election of General Grant and Schuyler Colfax, the nominees of the Republican party.

GRANT'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1869 TO 1873).

All the departments of the government being now in harmony, this administration became effectual in applying the various laws

looking to reconstruct,ion providing for the civil privileges of the colored race, giving fixity to the national currency, credit to the securities and for the reduction of the debt. The President's announcement to secure for the country rest and peace after the excitement and turmoil of war, was received on every hand with approbation. A partially successful attempt was made to convert the higher interest-bearing loans into bonds bearing a lower rate of interest. A new and humanized Indian policy was devised and put in practice. The Alabama claims were adjudicated and the vexatious question of the N. W. boundary settled. The country responded to the new condition of affairs and the guarantees of quiet, by a greatly increased development of natural resources, improved industries, large public improvements, and fresh commercial activity. Repetition of such an administration was deemed desirable by the majority, and President Grant was re-elected, with Henry Wilson for Vice-president, after a bitter and unique canvass against Horace Greely, as the candidate of the opposition.

GRANT'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION (1873 TO 1877)

This administration, in the main, continues the policy of the former one, except in the particular of a desire to obtain for the government a footing in the West Indies, and for transcontinental and other railroad enterprises, donations of public lands and government credit. The country was threatened for a time with serious complications with Spain, but these were averted by a wise statesmanship. The speculatve idea which grew up under a redundant currency, and the daring activities subsequent to the war, resulted in financial disaster at the close of 1873. In addition to its usual labors, the administration therefore found itself in the midst of problems for the restoration of credit, the adjustment of the currency to the wants of the people and the return of business to an economical and steadfast basis, whose successful solution will be numbered among the most worthy achievements.

GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

ITS HISTORY is one of peculiar interest, and therefore we feel warranted in giving more details of its design and history than can be allotted to the Seals of the several States. Soon after the Declaration of Independence, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson were appointed a committee to prepare a great seal for the infant republic; and they employed a French West Indian, named Du Simitiere, not only to furnish designs, but also to sketch such devices as were suggested by themselves. In one of his designs, the artist displayed on a shield the armorial ensigns of the several nations from whence America had been peopled—embracing those of England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Germany, and Holland. On one side was placed Liberty with her cap, and on the other was a rifleman in uniform, with his rifle in one hand and a tomahawk in the other—the dress and weapons being peculiar to America.

Franklin proposed, for the device, Moses lifting his wand, and dividing the Red Sea, and Pharaoh and his hosts overwhelmed with the waters. For a motto, the words of Cromwell, "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God."

Adams proposed the Choice of Hercules; the hero resting on a club, Virtue pointing to her rugged mountain on one hand, and

persuading him to ascend; and Sloth, glancing at her flowery paths of pleasure, wantonly reclining on the ground, displaying the charms, both of her eloquence and person, to seduce him into vice.

Jefferson proposed the Children of Israel in the Wilderness, led by a cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night; and, on the reverse, Hengist and Horsa, the Saxon chiefs, from whom we claim the honor of being descended, and whose political principles and form of government we have assumed.

Franklin and Adams then requested Jefferson to combine their ideas in a compact description of the proposed great seal, which he did, and that paper, in his handwriting, is now in the office of the Secretary of State at Washington. This design consisted of a shield with six quarterings, *parti* one, *coupi* two, in heraldic phrase. The first gold, and an enameled rose, red and white, for England; the second white, with a thistle, in its proper colors, for Scotland; the third green, with a harp of gold, for Ireland; the fourth blue, with a golden lily-flower, for France; the fifth gold, with the imperial black eagle, for Germany; and the sixth gold, with the Belgic crowned red lion, for Holland. These denoted the countries from which America had been peopled. He proposed to place the shield within a red border, on which there should be thirteen white escutcheons, linked together by a gold chain, each bearing appropriate initials, in black, of the confederated States. Supporters, the Goddess of Liberty on the right side, in a corslet of armor, in allusion to the then state of war, and holding the spear and cap in her right hand, while her left supported the shield. On the left, the Goddess of Justice, leaning on a sword in her right hand, and in her left a balance. The crest, the eye of Providence in a radiant triangle, whose glory should extend over the shield and beyond the figures. Motto: *E Pluribus Unum*—"Many in one." Around the whole, "SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, MDCCLXXVI." For the reverse, he proposed the device of Pharaoh sitting in an open chariot, a crown on his head and a sword in his hand, passing through the divided waters of the Red Sea in pursuit of the Israelites. Rays from a pillar of fire in a cloud, expressive of the Divine presence and command, beaming on Moses, who stands on the shore, and, extending his hand over the sea, causes it to overwhelm Pharaoh

and his followers. Motto: "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God."

Jefferson's device was highly approved by his coadjutors, and the committee reported on the 10th of August, 1776; but, for some unaccountable reason, their report was neglected, not having been even placed on record; and the affair was allowed to slumber until the 24th of March, 1779, when Messrs. Lovell, of Massachusetts, Scott, of Virginia, and Houston, of Georgia, were appointed a committee to make another device.

On the 10th of May following they reported in favor of a seal four inches in diameter, one side of which should be composed of a shield with thirteen diagonal stripes, alternate red and white. Supporters, a warrior, holding a sword, on one side, and on the other the figure of Peace, bearing an olive branch. The crest, a radiant constellation of thirteen stars. Motto: *Bello vel Pace*—"For War or Peace," and the legend, "Seal of the United States." On the reverse, the figure of Liberty, seated in a chair, holding the staff and cap. Motto: *Semper*—"Forever"—and underneath, MDCCLXXVI. This report was re-committed, and again submitted with some slight modifications (substituting the figure of an Indian with bow and arrows in his right hand for that of a warrior) just a year afterward; but it was not accepted, and the matter rested until April, 1782, when Henry Middleton, Elias Boudinot, and Edward Rutledge were appointed a third committee to prepare a seal. They reported on the 9th of May following, substantially the same as the committee of 1779 and 1780; but, this not being satisfactory to Congress, on the 13th of June the whole matter was referred to Charles Thomson, its secretary.

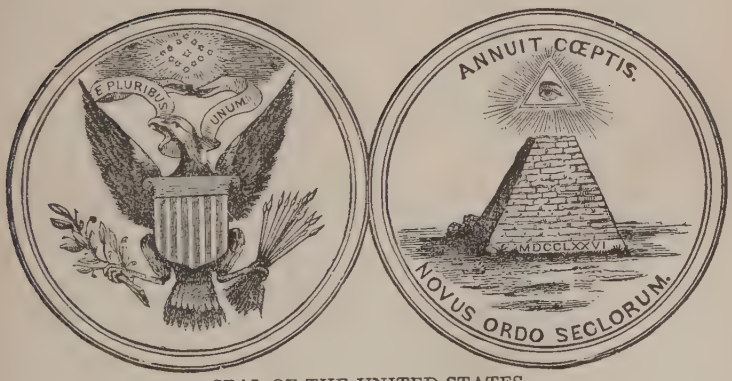
He in turn procured several devices, among which was one by William Barton, of Philadelphia, consisting of an escutcheon, with a blue border, spangled with thirteen stars, and divided in the centre, perpendicularly, by a gold bar. On each side of this division, within the blue border, thirteen bars or stripes, alternate red and white, like the American flag adopted on the 14th of June, 1777. Over the gold bar an eye surrounded with a glory, and in the gold bar a Doric column resting on the base of the escutcheon, having a displayed eagle on its summit. The crest, a helmet of burnished gold, damasked, grated with six bars, and surmounted by a red cap of dignity, such as dukes wear, with a black lining,

and a cock armed with gaffs. Supporters, on one side the Genius of America, with loose Auburn tresses, having on her head a radiant crown of gold, encircled with a sky-blue fillet, spangled with silver stars, and clothed in a long, loose, white garment, bordered with green. From the right shoulder to the left side, a blue scarf with stars, the cinctures being the same as in the border. Around her waist a purple girdle, fringed with gold, and the word VIRTUE embroidered in white. Her interior hand rested on the escutcheon, and the other held the American standard, on the top of which a white dove was perched. The supporter on the other side was a man in complete armor; his sword-belt blue, fringed with gold; his helmet encircled with a wreath of laurel, and crested with one white and two blue plumes; his left hand supporting the escutcheon, and his right holding a lance with a bloody point. Upon an unfurled green banner was a golden harp with silver strings, a brilliant star, and two lily-flowers, with two crossed swords below. The two figures stood upon a scroll, on which was the motto *Deo Favente*—"With God's Favor"—in allusion to the eye of Providence in the arms. On the crest, in a scroll, was the motto *Virtus sola Invicta*—"Virtue alone is Invincible."

After vainly striving to perfect a seal which should meet the approval of Congress, Thomson finally received from John Adams, then in London, an exceedingly simple and appropriate device, suggested by Sir John Prestwitch, a baronet of the West of England, who was a warm friend of America, and an accomplished antiquarian. It consisted of an escutcheon bearing thirteen perpendicular stripes, white and red, with the chief blue, and spangled with thirteen stars; and, to give it greater consequence, he proposed to place it on the breast of an American eagle, displayed, without supporters, as emblematic of self-reliance. It met with general approbation, in and out of Congress, and was adopted in June, 1782; so it is manifest, although the fact is not extensively known, that we are indebted for our national arms to a titled aristocrat of the country with which we were then at war. Eschewing all heraldic technicalities, it may be thus described in plain English: Thirteen perpendicular pieces, white and red; a blue field; the escutcheon on the breast of the American eagle displayed, proper, holding in his right talon an olive-branch, and in his left a bundle of thirteen arrows, all proper, and in his

beak a scroll, inscribed with the motto *E Pluribus Unum.* For the crest, over the head of the eagle, which appears above the escutcheon, a golden glory breaking through a cloud, proper, and surrounding thirteen stars, forming a constellation of white stars on a blue field.

Reverse.—A pyramid unfinished. In the zenith, an eye in a triangle, surrounded with a glory, proper. Over the eye, the words *Annuit Cœptis*—"God has favored the undertaking." On the base of the pyramid, are the numeral Roman letters MDCCLXXVI; and underneath the motto, *Novus Ordo Seclorum*—"A New Series of Ages"—denoting that a new order of things had commenced in the Western hemisphere. Thus, after many fruitless efforts, for nearly six years, a very simple seal was adopted, and yet remains the arms of the United States.



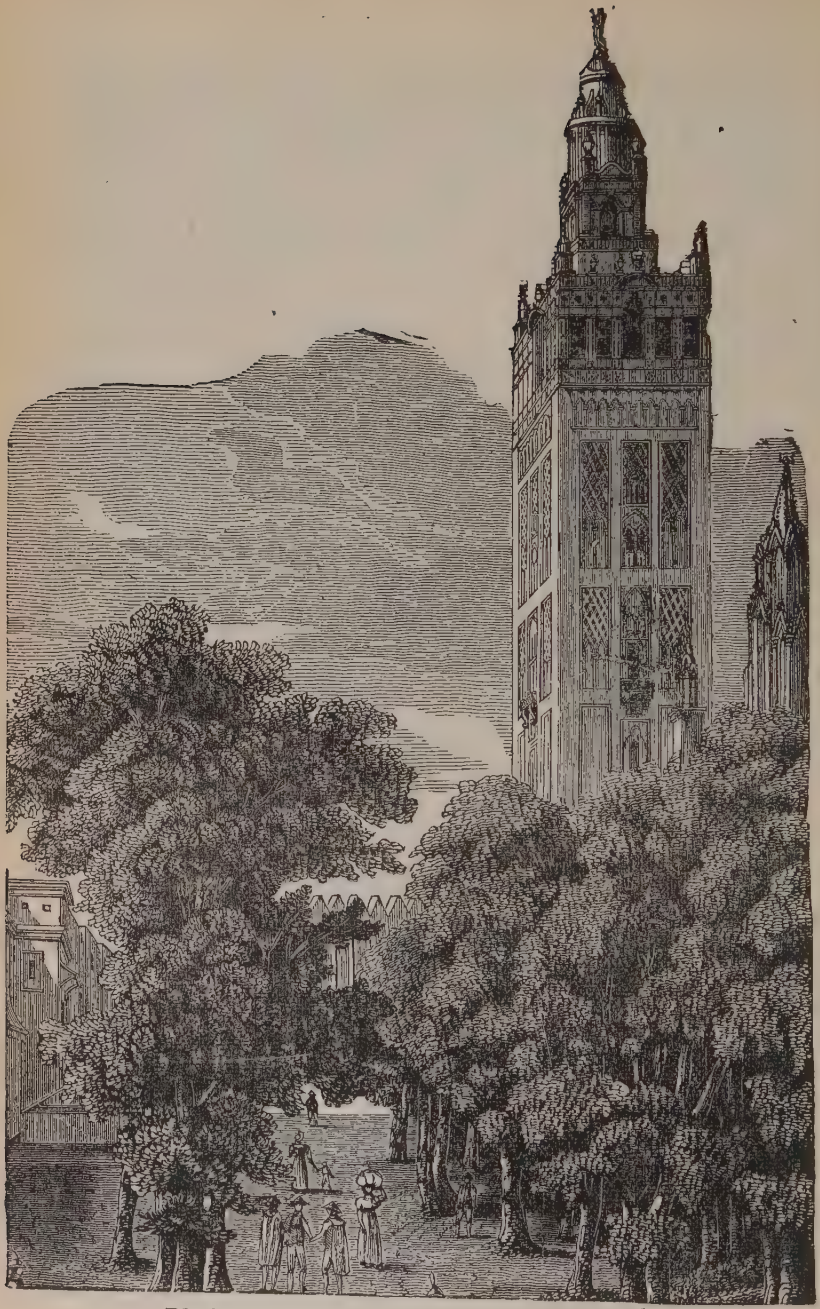
SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF GOVERNMENT.

A LEARNED and skillful writer traces the origin of political government to parental government, in which we will agree with him if he will carry that back to our Creator, who, when He placed in the garden of Eden the children whom He had created, instituted a government by laying down certain laws, and attaching to the non-observance of them punishment or penalties. Man sinned, and the penalty was inflicted upon him, and other laws were added to suit his fallen nature. It is probable that, when the children of Adam became old enough to understand right from wrong, looking back over his own fatal mistake, and forward to the consequences of that rash act, he strove to teach his descendants the Divine law, as given to him from the lips of God; and thus became a law giver to, and ruler over them, in a certain sense. The children of men multiplied and teeming millions covered the earth, and each descending generation gave itself up more and more to the indulgence of every forbidden sin and pleasure, until the world reeked with corruption; then again the Omnipotent Ruler of the universe interposed, and the wrath which they had kindled against themselves was let loose, and all, save righteous Noah and his family, were swept from existence. In turn, Noah became the Parent and the Ruler, and government was established over his descendants, and from time to time God gave such laws as He saw were needed. The most ancient of our modern governments were exceedingly arbitrary, in many cases were simply unlimited power and unrestrained tyranny.

During the Old Testament age, usually called the Mosaic dispensation, the parent had control of his child, even to the infliction of capital punishment, and in China the same law or custom

COLUMBUS TAKING POSSESSION OF THE NEW WORLD.



TOMB OF COLUMBUS—CATHEDRAL OF SEVILLE.

still prevails. It was also practiced by the ancient Romans, and by the Grecians; and was most probably common over all the world, since it was found in all our savage tribes when the American Continent was discovered. In ancient times every tribe and every city had its King, and the kingdom was often so small in extent that in order to obtain the necessary territory, war was resorted to, and the weaker fled before, or was destroyed by the stronger party.

Observation taught the rulers, at an early period of the world's existence, that certain restraints and laws were necessary for the preservation of order, and though the art of governing was not carried to that perfection which marks it now, yet the Mosaic laws are the foundation of the laws of our own, and indeed of every civilized, christian country. As the population of the world increased, and the cares of state pressed too heavily upon him, Moses appointed assistants, or district judges who were to hear all complaints and settle small matters as seemed best to them; but Moses, still at the head of the tribes of Israel, as temporal and spiritual leader, decided all matters of importance. In order that every family should be provided with certain means of support, it has been the custom from time immemorial to set apart a tract of land for their use, and it was deeded or secured to them in such a way that except by actual sale, or transfer, or by confiscation for crime, it could not be taken from them, and they were required to place stationary landmarks to define their boundaries, and the heaviest penalties were inflicted upon any man who was known to be guilty of altering the position of those marks.

Three points of law, always prominent, were established as early in history as there was society to govern,—"the punishment of crime," "the institution of marriage," and "regulations concerning property;" and we infer from this that laws of some sort have always governed mankind. As the world advanced from the gloom of barbarism, the laws relaxed somewhat of their severity, and each progressive step adds to our liberty; but entire freedom from all law would plunge society into the most terrible state that ever existed; and never, until man becomes something better than humanity is capable of, can this be; nay, never, since even in Heaven, he will be subject to law. All just laws are enacted with a view to preserving and defending the rights and liberties of those

who are subject to them, but often laws that are selfish and unjust impose upon the people wrongs that are too oppressive to be borne.

In countries where the Republican form of government exists, this cannot be, or if laws are found to be unwise, and injudicious, it is in the power of the people to repeal or modify them. In olden times the power of the sovereign was unlimited—absolute, but gradually mind asserted its superiority over matter; the voice of the people began to be heard, and their influence felt, and the low mutterings of discontent from the masses have shaken the firmest thrones to their foundation. To-day there is scarcely a civilized government in existence where, in some way the people do not have representation and a voice in making the laws that govern them.

The patriarchial form of government seems to have assumed the monarchial, and to have held sway even down to the present time; but in latter years, under the influence of christianity and civilization, it has abated its rigors, and become more limited in its power. With every circle of the whirling years, man's experience teaches him wisdom, and nations learn in the same hard, sad school, and profit by the lesson they conned through years that were clouded by their errors, ignorance or folly. There is no form of government in the world so well adapted to the human race, and so well calculated to develop the noblest sentiments of patriotism and love of country, as the Republican; no other government which calls into being, and stimulates into action so strong a feeling of personal interest and responsibility, and compels a man to study its principles. No injustice can be complained of—no arbitrary or cruel oppression—no laws that are an outrage upon his manhood—for the voice of the people enacted these statutes, and framed those laws. For the liberty of thought and speech that has blessed us above all other lands—for the freedom from thrall of church that has blessed us above all other nations—for the patriotism that has defended our cherished institutions—for the Republican government which has elevated us into the highest position held by the nations of the world, we reverently thank God, as we worship him according to the dictates of our own conscience.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE UNITED STATES.

THIS great Republic, truly great and glorious, lies between lat. 24 deg. 30 min. and 49 deg. N., and between long. 66 deg. 50 min. and 124 deg. 30 min. W. Its boundaries, with the exception of British America west of Lake Superior, are water; the Atlantic on the east, the Gulf of Mexico on the south, the Pacific on the west; on the north, from the St. Lawrence River to Lake Superior, lie Huron, St. Clair, Erie, and Ontario, a silver chain that encircles our treasure. America has added to her territory the Russian Possessions, lying to the far north. Whether, in adding to her broad acres over half a million of square miles she has added materially to her wealth, is a problem which only a century in advance of ours can solve. Either in a domestic or political sense, it is at present only a Castle in Spain to us. We may dream of its future development —we may fondly imagine that it will some day be a storehouse of countless and boundless wealth—but *we* shall never see that snow-shrouded desert "blossom as a rose," as at the touch of labor, and industry, and art, and skill, it shall wake from the winter sleep that has held it prisoned forever, and with the blushes sweeping over her still white face, go forth at their command to meet the incoming civilization. With an area of 3,878,245 square miles, three-fourths, or perhaps four-fifths of which is tillable, most of it surpassing rich in vegetable and mineral products, there appear no natural, or possible bounds to our prosperity.

Every good thing seems to have been gathered here Our land

floweth with milk and honey, and its corn and wine make glad the hearts of her children. Standing between the impoverished nations of the East and the West, she opens her arms to the poor and needy, the wronged and oppressed, of all lands and climes; gives them shelter and refuge in her bosom, and homes and fortunes in her broad domains. It is not strange, under these circumstances, that the tide of emigration should turn to our shores, and, bringing with them habits of industry and economy, and obedience to law, should add to our own, as well as their wealth. Neither is it strange that, in the fulness of their gratitude, they love the land of their adoption, and the Government which has made their interests identical with its own. During the last twenty years nearly five million have arrived at the port of New York alone, who have come under emigrant regulations, solely for the purpose of settling and making homes in the New World.

The political divisions are too well understood to need an explanation, and consist of thirty-seven States and eleven Territories. The Mississippi is our most important river, and, together with the Missouri, the longest in the world. In reality, the upper Mississippi, by the usual rules of measurement, is the branch, and the Missouri is the main stream—being more than a thousand miles longer, from its head to its mouth, or junction with the Missisippi. The total length from its source in Lake Itasca to the Gulf of Mexico, is 2,986 miles, but from the source of the Missouri to the Gulf of Mexico, is nearly 5,000 miles.

The principal lakes are Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario and Champlain, all of which lie along our northern boundary, and the Great Salt Lake, in Utah Territory. This lake, so called, is more properly an inland sea. Lake Superior is a magnificent body of water, and the largest body of fresh water in the world. The bluffy shores on the north side of the lake are grand; no words perhaps can do them justice; but so desolate—oh, so wild, and dreary, and desolate. A feeling of sadness comes over you, you cannot tell how or why, as you stand upon the deck of a steamer and pass mile after mile of unbroken forest, without a sign of civilization, without a sign of life, save where at long intervals the blue smoke rises from an Indian s bark hut, or a solitary red man stands on a crag to watch the passing boat, or a group of their beautiful, fleet-footed ponies tells of their proximity. The

dense, dark, low evergreens cover the land closely, interspersed with clumps or groves of oak, beech, birch and hickory trees. On the south side of the lake the shore is bold, but less steep and mountainous. The old Fort of Mackinaw still stands in good order, and the new fort is a fine building. The Pictured Rocks are very beautiful, and well worthy of a visit from the passing tourist. At sunrise they appear more like some fancy painting than any earthly reality. Rising boldly to a hight of from three to five hundred feet, covered with trees that are century crowned, perforated with caves, worn and broken into fantastic shapes by the storms of ages, stained with every imaginable shade of coloring from the dripping of the springs in the rock upon mineral substances, it is impossible to fancy any thing more picturesque or sublime. The water at their base is very deep and transparently clear; at a depth of two or three hundred feet below the surface you can plainly discern the wreck of a steamer lying where it went down one fatal night some years ago. The richest copper mines in the world are those of the Superior. The ore is taken out in immense bodies, often too large to be transported in any manner, and nearly pure. The region of the upper Superior is but sparsely settled, but since the location of the Northern Pacific Railroad is rapidly improving.

The mountain ranges most worthy of note are the Alleghany in the east, and the Rocky Mountains on the western side of the continent. The length of the Alleghanies is about 1500 miles. The Rocky Mountains are broken ranges, and although running from north to south, cover a district of a thousand miles in width. Between these ranges lie some of the most beautiful prairies, table lands or plateaus, in the world. The mountain passes, defiles and canons are awfully grand and sublime, and it is said by those who have visited both—even by Europeans themselves—that the Alps present nothing more wild and grand than the Sierra Nevadas, with their hoary, snow covered heads, piercing the clouds.

The soil of the United States presents every variety known upon the globe, from the soft, rich mould of the tropics, to the sterile sands of the desert, but with the exception of the dry plains or desert in the vicinity of Salt Lake, nearly the entire surface of our country is productive, and from the Atlantic

shores to the Pacific coast, verdure, beauty and wealth spread out in every direction.

The climate is as varied as the soil. Lying, as the Republic does, between such extremes of longitude and latitude, it is impossible but that our climate would embrace every variety which it is possible to produce. In the northern of the Middle States the temperature varies from one extreme to the other, and the changes are so rapid as to leave one wholly unprepared to meet them. In the East, we have longer winters, and steady cold or heat. In Florida the temperature is even, scarcely varying from January to January again; while in Georgia, Alabama, South Carolina, Texas, California and New Mexico, the climate is very like that of Italy.

The mineral productions are extensive and varied. There is scarcely a mineral or precious stone known in the world, but is produced in America. Coal and iron are abundant in nearly every State in the Union. Nitrate of soda and potassa are found in quantities to supply the ages to come, in the caves of Virginia, Kentucky and Arkansas; while the very desert of the Salt Lake country is a mine of inexhaustible wealth for its nitrate and carbonate of soda. Maine, Maryland, Texas and Arizona produce gypsum, while marble of every variety, for building or statuary, is found everywhere. Iron is found in every State and Territory, and Illinois alone is capable of furnishing all the lead required by the manufactories of the world. The richest copper mines are found in the Superior region, yet almost every State produces it in greater or less quantities. Zinc is found in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and tin in Maine and California. Gold is found in all the States bordering on the Atlantic coast, and previous to the discovery of the rich mines of the Western States, Virginia furnished nearly all the gold of the United States. These mines are all abandoned, however, since the discovery of the immense deposits in California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado and Dakota. California also yields a limited quantity of platinum, and mercury in immense quantities, sufficient, indeed, to meet the great demand created by the gold mines for it. Osmium and iridium have been discovered in Oregon. Cobalt is produced by North Carolina and Missouri, and Pennsylvania yields nickel in abundance.

The people of the United States are from every land and every clime under the sun. In a few of the States you can trace, through the established habits and customs of the people, the origin of the first settlers; but in most places, the emigration from foreign lands constantly changes the characteristics of the inhabitants. The New England States, settled by the Puritans, retain something of their prim severity of manners. Maryland was settled by the Catholics, and they have always been, and still are, the strongest religious denomination in the State. Pennsylvania was settled by Quakers and Germans, Louisiana by the French, and Texas and California by Spanish. An immense number of Chinese have found homes on the western slopes of the continent, and promise to become useful citizens.

The agricultural interests of the Republic, already stupendous, are constantly increasing, and one looks over the statistics of produce of farm and garden in a bewildered way as he fails to grasp or comprehend the figures that testify truthfully of our national wealth, industry and prosperity. Indian corn is and always will be a staple product. In 1862, the number of bushels raised by seven of the Middle States, amounted to 482,250,800. Illinois alone produced 125,500,000. In the scale of importance, wheat stands next to corn, and the yield of 1862 counts up 264,146,950.

American wheat received the prize medal at the London exhibition. There is no question but ours is the best grown in the world. Rye, barley and oats are grown in all the States, also buckwheat, peas and beans, and as a field crop the two latter grow in importance every year. Rice is produced in all the Southern States, and has been grown in the Middle States, though it can never be made a profitable crop there, since the soil is too dry. The yield in 1860 was 187,140,173 pounds. In this, South Carolina leads off, having produced that year 119,100,528. The potato ranks next to corn and wheat. In 1869 the number of bushels grown of this favorite vegetable was 133,886,000. Hay, also is a valuable crop, and hops, as the demand increases, are receiving favorable notice. Tobacco is raised in almost every State in the Union, flourishing upon every soil and giving profitable returns for little labor. The crop of 1860 amounted to 429,390,771 pounds.

Sugar cane is raised in all of the Southern States, and the manufacture of sugar and molasses has long been a leading

branch of industry in that part of the Union. Of late years, with improved machinery and better facilities for performing the labor, the amount of sugar had increased steadily each year, until the war checked it, but it is again prosperous, and the latest returns credit Louisiana with the production of 297,816 hogsheads, and 15,535,157 gallons of molasses, for that year.

Sorghum is raised to considerable extent in the North, but it will not make sugar, and seems not to be really popular. In 1869 the yield of molasses in the Middle States, from sorghum, was 7,235,884 gallons, and the same year produced 40,863,884 pounds of maple sugar, and 1,944,594 gallons of maple molasses. The prairie lands of the United States furnish unlimited pasturage and hay, and stock raising and dairy-farming seem to follow as naturally as effect follows cause. The total amount of butter produced for market in the year 1869, was 470,536,468 pounds, and the same year also produced for market 114,154,211 pounds of cheese; and enormous as the amount seems, it was not a year remarkable for the quantity, which has steadily increased since. The cultivation of grapes for the purpose of manufacturing wine is becoming one of the leading enterprises of the country; and California has a prospect, at no distant day, of eclipsing the vineyards of France or Italy. Ohio also produces a large quantity of very fine quality of flax and hemp, which have been raised to a considerable extent, both for seed and material for the manufacture of linen and hemp goods; and the growing of wool, always a profitable and popular business, has received a great deal of encouragement for a few years past. Statistics prove that the growth of cotton in the United States is not as great as formerly, but has decreased in quantity for several years; 1869 produced 5,198,077 bales.

The commerce of the United States with foreign countries is very heavy. In 1869 the exports of the United States to foreign countries amounted to $373,189,274; while her imports amounted to $463,461,427. When we consider that America is made independent of every other country by her ability to produce everything in her own fields and factories which comfort or luxury demand, this excess of imports over exports would appear to be unnecessary.

In internal improvements the Republic of America ranks

POCAHONTAS.

POCAHONTAS RESCUING CAPT. JOHN SMITH.

second to no power in the world. In river and harbor improvement, in canals and railroads, nothing that industry and enterprise, united to almost limitless capital could accomplish, has been left undone. Continuous lines of railroad span the continent from the "rock bound coast" of the Atlantic to the blue waters of the Pacific, and from the lakes of the north to the gulf that breaks upon our southern coast, and forty thousand miles of iron track girdle the States in every possible direction; while high over wood and prairie, over stream and hill, over mountain and valley the dark wires of the telegraph stretch out, bearing with an unseen, unheard and mysterious power, words of peace or tidings of war—joy and gladness to one hearth, sorrow and desolation to another. With all his wisdom and far-seeing sagacity, Franklin never prophesied how great results would follow the experiments which to common minds seemed but the vague vision of an idealist. Later, Morse brought the art to what seems to us a glorious perfection, but in the unborn years before us, other master minds, profiting by what philosophy has already proven, will carry on the well begun work.

To our public or common schools America owes her greatness, since to strength of developed muscles is added strength of developed and cultivated intellect, and ample and generous provision for the education of every child has been made. Our system of to-day is the system which was established by the Pilgrim Fathers, who, fleeing from the ignorance and superstition of the old world, kindled the flame of general knowledge, and set the light on a hill where it cannot be hid; and succeeding generations have fed the sacred fire until to-day it lights the world. Fellow laborer with the free school is the free press. Thank God for the free, unfettered press, whose voice is potent to break the chains of tyranny and thunder its denunciations at abuse and wrong, and demand the execution of justice, even while it advocates mercy.

With that commendable prudence and wisdom which marked the course pursued by the "Fathers of the Republic," every citizen is left free and untrammeled by bigotry or prejudice, "to worship God after the dictates of his own heart," and in doing this, that man must be callous indeed who cannot, in some religious denomination, find a home till such time as he is called to "come up higher."

OUR COUNTRY.

OUR COUNTRY!—'tis a glorious land!
With broad arms stretch'd from shore to shore,
The proud Pacific chafes her strand,
She hears the dark Atlantic roar;

And, nurtur'd on her ample breast,
How many a goodly prospect lies,
In Nature's wildest grandeur drest,
Enamel'd with her loveliest dyes.

Rich prairies deck'd with flowers of gold,
Like sunlit oceans roll afar;
Broad lakes her azure heavens behold,
Reflecting clear each trembling star,

And mighty rivers, mountain-born,
Go sweeping onward, dark and deep,
Through forests where the bounding fawn
Beneath their sheltering branches leap.

And cradled 'mid her clustering hills,
Sweet vales in dreamlike beauty hide,
Where love the air with music fills,
And calm content and peace abide;

For plenty here her fullness pours
In rich profusion o'er the land,
And sent to seize her generous store,
There prowls no tyrant's hireling band.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

The United States is a federation of republican commonwealths, resting upon the broad basis of democratic institutions. The government of the United States was erected by the joint will of the people of the original thirteen colonies. In May, 1775, a congress assembled in Philadelphia, and on the 4th of July of the following year issued the memorable Declaration of Independence, followed by a war with Great Britain, at the end of which the colonies were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown and became free and independent states. After protracted deliberations, Congress on the 15th of November, 1777, agreed to the articles of confederation, but it was not until the 1st of March, 1781, that these articles received the unanimous approval of all the states. The fundamental defect in this confederation was, that the decrees of the federal council were held subject to the states in their sovereign capacity. The council framed laws for political communities and not for private individuals, and was clothed with no power to enforce its laws upon these political communities of the states. The only correction for disobedience was military force, instead of the decree and the arm of the civil magistrate. In May, 1786, delegates of all the states, except Rhode Island, assembled in general convention at Philadelphia, for the purpose of revising and amending the articles of confederation; and after several months of peaceful deliberation agreed upon the plan of government which now forms the Constitution of the United States. It was submitted in each state to a convention of delegates chosen for the purpose, but over a year elapsed before it received the ratification of a sufficient number of states to give it a political existence, and nearly three years before it received the unanimous ratification of all the states and thus became the supreme law of the land.

The Constitution as originally framed consists of seven articles. It determines the legal relations between the federal government, on the one hand, and the state governments, on the other, and

makes but little reference to the rights of individual citizens. With the progress of time fifteen supplementary articles or "amendments" have been added, and nearly all of these define personal rights of individuals.

The government, according to the Constitution, is composed of three distinct branches: the legislative, the judicial, and the executive.

THE LEGISLATIVE POWER

Is vested in *Congress*. The Constitution defines it to be "the power to make all laws necessary and proper for carrying into execution all powers vested in the government or in any department or officer thereof.

The principal powers of Congress are: to lay and collect taxes and duties uniformly throughout the United States; to borrow money on the credit of the United States; to regulate commerce with foreign nations and between the several states; to establish a uniform rule of naturlization and uniform laws of bankruptcy; to coin money and fix the standard of weights and measures; to establish post-offices and post-roads; to declare war and grant letters of marque; to raise and maintain armies and a navy, and to make rules for their government; to provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and to govern such as may be employed in the service of the United States; to exercise executive legislation over the district in which is placed the seat of government ofthe United States, and over all places purchased for the erection of forts, arsenals and dock-yards.

The Constitution prescribes the following restrictions upon the power of Congress: The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it; no bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed; no capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the official census enumeration; no preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another, nor shall vessels bound to or from one state pay duties in another; no money shall be drawn from the treasury except in consequence of appropriations made by law; nor shall any law be enacted respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition the government for redress of grievances; nor shall the validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incured for payment of pensions and bounties, be questioned; and neither the United States nor any state shall pay any debt incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave.

Congress consists of two branches: the Senate and the House of Representatives.

THE SENATE

is composed of two Senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for a term of six years. No person can be elected Senator who is under thirty years of age, and who has not been a citizen of the United States for nine years, and who is not, when elected, a citizen of the state for which he is chosen. The Senate has sole power to try impeachments, and when sitting for that purpose is under oath like courts of justice. If the President be tried, the Chief Justice of the United States is to preside. The Senate has power to ratify or reject treaties with foreign powers, and it requires the concurrence of two-thirds of the senators present to authorize the President to make a treaty. The advice and consent of the Senate is necessary to confirm appointments made by the President. The Senate cannot originate any bill for raising revenue, but may propose amendments or concur in such bill. The Vice-president of the United States is *ex officio* president of the Senate. In his absence the Senate elects a president *por tempore*. It further elects a secretary to record its proceedings, a sergeant-at-arms to attend and to arrest offenders, and a door-keeper to guard the entrance to the Senate Chamber.

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

is composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states. The representatives are apportioned among the several states according to their respective number of inhabitants. After each decennial census, Congress re-adjusts the proportion of population entitled to a representative, and fixes anew the whole number of representatives, leaving the manner and time of state apportionment to the states themselves. Under the apportionment fixed subsequent to the census of 1870, the states became entitled to the following number of representatives respectively: Ala. 8; Ark. 4; Cal. 4; Conn. 4; Del. 1; Fla. 2; Ga. 9; Ill. 19; Ind. 13; Iowa, 9; Kan. 3; Ky. 10; La. 6; Me. 5; Md. 6; Mass. 11; Mich. 9; Min. 3; Miss. 6; Mo. 13; Neb. 1; Nev. 1; N. H. 3; N. J. 7; N. Y. 33; N. C. 8; Ohio 20; Oreg. 1; Pa. 27; R. I. 2; S. C. 5; Tenn. 10; Texas 8; Vt. 3; Va. 9; W. Va. 3; Wis. 8. Total, 292. A representative must have attained the age of 25 years, and must be a citizen and an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen. The House chooses its own speaker, clerk, sergeant-at-arms, door-keeper, and other officers. It has exclusive power to originate bills for raising revenue.

In ordinary legislative matters the powers and duties of both houses of Congress are legislative and advisory, but not judicial and executive.

THE EXECUTIVE POWER

is vested in the President, who is chosen by electors, each state being entitled to as many as it has senators and representatives in Congress. His term of office is four years. The Vice-president, who is *ex-officio* president of the Senate, is chosen at the same time and in the same manner as the President. The Constitution requires that both these officers shall be native-born citizens of the United States, and that they shall have attained the age of 35 years, and have been 14 years residents of the United States.

The President is Commander-in-chief of the army and navy and of the militia of the several states when called into the service of the United States. He has power to grant reprieves and pardons for the offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. He has also the power, by and with the advice of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur. The President nominates, and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoints the officers of government; as ambassadors or public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all executive officers of the government, except those whose appointment is otherwise provided for by the Constitution. The President receives foreign ministers and grants the *exequatur* to foreign consuls. He communicates to Congress by message at the opening of every session the condition of the country, and recommends such measures as he deems expedient.

Every order, vote, or bill which requires the action of both Houses (except the resolution to adjourn) must be presented to the President for his signature and approval. It becomes a law if he appends his signature. The President has the power to *veto* any bill or resolution passed by both Houses. He does this by returning it to the House where it originated, with a written message, stating his objections or reasons why he believes it ought not to become a law. If, however, Congress then passes the bill by a majority of two-thirds of the members, it becomes a law notwithstanding the President's *veto*. The Constitution directs that the President shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed. In the discharge of his duties he is assisted by the highest executive officers, each of whom presides over one of the departments of government. These are collectively called the *Cabinet*, consisting of: 1, Secretary of State; 2, the Secretary of the Treasury; 3, the Secretary of War; 4, the Secretary of the Navy; 5, the Secretary of the Interior; 6, the Postmaster-General, and 7, the Attorney-General. They are the President's constitutional advisers, and twice a week attend a meeting at his office for consultation upon the executive duties of the Federal Government, or upon questions of policy.

THE JUDICIAL POWER

of the United States in vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judicial power extends over all cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States may be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state and citizen thereof, or of a foreign state.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state may be a party, the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions as Congress may make.

The Supreme Court is the highest judicial tribunal in the United States. It is composed of a chief justice and eight associate justices. The former presides in the court, regulates the order of business, controls the docket, and assigns to his associates the cases in which they are to prepare opinions. The chief and the associates hold their places for life, or during good behavior.

The United States is divided into nine judicial circuits, in each of which a circuit court is held twice every year, for each state within the circuit, by a justice of the Supreme Court assigned to the circuit, and by the district judge of the state or district in which the court sits.

The circuit courts have both original and appellate jurisdiction. They have concurrent jurisdiction with the state courts, where the matter in dispute exceeds the sum of $500, and the United States are plaintiff or where an alien is a party, or where the controversy is between citizens of different states. They have exclusive jurisdiction in all crimes against the laws of the United States, except where the law especially confers the power upon other courts. The district courts have original jurisdiction in all admiralty cases, and in most of the cases arising in custom-houses, and those growing out of bankruptcies.

The *Court of Claims* was established in 1856. Before this time, persons who had claims against the government, which the departments refused to pay, had no remedy except by petition to Congress. This remedy, however, was in many cases unavailing or altogether delusive. Since the establishment of this court, a citizen may enforce his claims against the government, as against

another citizen, by legal process. The court consists of five judges, who are appointed by the President, and hold their places during good behavior. In all matters and suits the government is represented by the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and two Assistant Attorneys-General. The court has jurisdiction of claims founded upon a law of Congress, the regulation of an executive department, or of contracts express or implied, and of counter claims by the government.

In each of the States, the government, as in the case of the United States, is distributed among three departments, the Legislative, Executive and Judicial. Experience has demonstrated this separation to be vital to the existence of healthful government, and, consequently, especial care is taken to prevent, as far as may be, each from trenching upon the peculiar functions of the other.

The legislative powers of each State, are lodged in a Legislature consisting of two branches; the common title of the higher being "The Senate," that of the lower, "House of Representatives," "Assembly," or the like.

The principal differences existing between these branches, are to be found in the number of members—that of the higher branch being much less than that of the lower; in the age of their members—a more advanced period being requisite in the former case; in the extent of their constituency—a greater number of inhabitants uniting to elect to the upper; in the tenure of their office—a longer term being generally assigned to the Senate; and in the requirement, in vogue in some States, that the terms of but a portion of the Senators shall expire at any one time, the object being to secure greater stability and certainty in legislation.

In most of the States, comparatively slight, if any, requirements as to property qualifications exist, either in the case of members or those who elect them.

In the earlier history of the country the sessions of the various Legislatures were held annually; of late years, however, especially in the States more recently admitted into the Confederacy, the practice has obtained of having biennial sessions. The compensation of members of the Legislature differs greatly, both in amount and in the principles upon which it is based; some being paid a per diem allowance and mileage, irrespective of the length of the session; others having a per diem only for a specific number

TREATY OF WM. PENN, WITH THE INDIANS.

PORTRAIT OF WILLIAM PENN.

A SEAMAN S FLOATING CHAPEL.

of days; while yet others are paid an aggregate sum instead of daily compensation.

The approval of the chief executive officer of the State is requisite to ensure validity to the acts of the Legislature, saving in those cases wherein, by constitutional provisions, acts may be repassed by the necessary majorities over the vote of the Executive. In some of the States, the Legislatures are prevented, by constitutional interdicts, from imposing taxes beyond a specific amount, or creating a larger amount of debt than is thereby allowed; while in others, both of these important subjects are left wholly within the control of the law-making body.

The chief magistrate of each State is styled "Governor," and is vested with powers more or less extensive, as the particular Constitution prescribes. In some of the States he has authority, with the approval of the Senate, or Executive Council, to appoint Judges and various minor judicial officers, to grant pardons, reprieves, etc. He is commander-in-chief of the militia of the various States, and even in those where the large majority of civil officers are elective, is the only authority to commission all such officers. The length of the gubernatorial term varies much in the different States, a few still clinging to the old system of an annual election, while the larger number have lengthened it to two or three years.

Governors are elected by the people of the several States, excepting in South Carolina, where the Legislature elects; and, in most of the States there are slight, if any, property qualifications requisite.

Subordinate officers, generally elected by the people, whose duties are both advisory and executory as to the details of the administration of the government, are to be found in every State, corresponding in some degree to Heads of Departments under the United States government.

Formerly, all judges were appointed by the Executive, with the consent of the advising Board. As a general rule, they are now elective, mostly by the people, though in some States by the Legislature. Their tenure of office, too, is now, as a general thing, for a specific term of years, instead of for life, as formerly.

Each State has established a Court for the interpretation of Constitutional Law and the adjudication of weightier matters of

dispute between its inhabitants, called a Supreme Court, Superior Court, Court of Errors, Court of Appeals, or the like. A few of the States have separate tribunals for disposal of cases in equity.

Next below the highest court are courts adapted to the particular wants of ordinary litigants in the various counties or other subdivisions. These are called Courts of Common Pleas, Circuit Courts, District Courts, Police Courts, Recorder's Courts, etc. The lowest class of judicial officers is styled Justices of the Peace, or Aldermen, having jurisdiction in trivial suits and over petty offenses. Besides these Courts there are, in some States, specific tribunals for the trial of criminal cases, as Courts of Quarter Sessions of the Peace, Oyer and Terminer, etc.; and for settlement of estates of deceased persons, as Register's Courts, Probate Courts, Orphans' Courts, etc. Indeed, in no State can the citizens complain of a lack of opportunity afforded them for gratifying whatever litigious propensities they may possess.

From this brief glance at the structure of our governments, both National and State, it will readily be seen with what scrupulous care and jealous anxiety the illustrious men who have gone before us, laid the foundation of our Union in that noble Constitution which has served as the model by which the individual States, as a whole, have elaborated their own governments. With the minute details of that Constitution, it is the first duty of every American citizen to familiarize himself. If the intentions of its framers are truly and faithfully carried out; if the National Government is cautious to avoid all infringements upon the reserved rights of the individual States; if the several States are reciprocally determined to fulfil every obligation imposed upon them by the common compact; in short, if a spirit of concession, forbearance, and love for the whole country pervades the bosom of every citizen of every State, then, indeed, we may feel proudly confident that the fond hopes of the most sanguine of the early friends of the Federal Union shall be more than realized—then shall each day's rising sun, while time endures, smile upon a free, enlightened, independent, and united people, and our glory as a nation reach its culmination in the wise exercise of a power which none may safely resist, in the cultivation of a genuine rational liberty, which, recognizing the dignity of the individual man, shall afford ample room and scope for its development.

THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

was created by a law passed in July, 1789, and is presided over by the Secretary of State, who is, next to the President, the highest executive officer of the government. This department corresponds to the foreign office in European states, and the office of Secretary of State, to that of their ministers for foreign affairs. The duties of the Secretary are the following: He holds intercourse with the ambassadors and ministers of foreign governments accredited to ours, and conducts correspondence with them; he prepares and issues instructions to our ministers and consuls abroad, and prescribes regulations for keeping their books and records, and receives their reports. He also collects and communicates to Congress all commercial information obtained through our ministers and consuls abroad, or from other sources. He receives the enrolled acts passed by Congress, that have become laws, and promulgates them. He causes the seal of the United States to be affixed to all civil commissions after they have been signed by the President. He has two Assistant Secretaries who perform such duties as may be prescribed by him or provided for by law. The other officers of the department are the Disbursing Agent, who has charge of its funds and accounts; the Translator, who furnishes translations of documents as required by the department; the Clerk of Appointments and Commissions, who makes out and records commissions, nominations to the Senate, *exequaturs*, etc., and has charge of the department library; the Clerk of Rolls and Archives, who has charge of the enrolled acts of Congress as they are received from the President, prepares copies thereof, superintends their publication and that of treaties, and has charge of all Indian treaties; and the Clerk of Authentications, who has charge of the seals of the United States and of the department, certifies to and authenticates documents, receives and accounts for fees, and records all letters other than diplomatic and consular.

The diplomatic agents representing our government abroad receive their instruction from and report to the Secretary of State. The highest in rank are the Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary to England, Germany, France, Russia, Spain, Austria, Italy, China, Mexico, Brazil, Chili, and Peru. Ministers Resident represent the United States in Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Netherland, Belgium, Portugal, Switzerland, Hawaiian Islands, Hayti, Turkey, Greece, Japan, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, New Granada, Venezuela, Ecuador, the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Liberia. Secretaries of Legation are authorized in each country where there is a Minister Plenipotentiary or a Minister Resident. Assistant secretaries are authorized for London and Paris.

Consuls are public agents, residing in foreign countries, usually at important commercial cities and seaports, to watch over the commercial interests of our citizens. The United States maintains about 75 consuls in the various parts of the world.

THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT

is presided over by the Secretary, who is charged with supervision of the fiscal transactions and finances of the government, and execution of laws concerning commerce and navigation, the survey of the coast, the light-house establishment, the marine hospitals of the United States, and the construction of public buildings for custom-houses and other purposes. The business of the department is distributed among several bureaus, each of which has its specific duties and is under the direction of a responsible chief.

The *First Controller* prescribes the mode of keeping and rendering accounts for the civil and diplomatic service, and the public lands.

The *Second Controller* keeps and renders accounts for the army and navy departments and the Indian bureau.

There are six auditors in the department, who examine and adjust the accounts of the United States with individuals.

The *First Auditor* adjusts the accounts of the customs, the revenue, and the appropriations and expenditures of the civil list, and reports the balances to the First Controller and the Commissioner of Customs.

The *Second Auditor* adjusts all accounts relating to pay, clothing, and recruiting of the army, and those relating to the Indian Department, and reports the balances to the Second Controller.

The *Third Auditor* adjusts all accounts for subsistance of the army, for fortifications, the military academy, military roads, the quarter-master's department, pensions, claims arising from military services prior to 1861, for horses and other property lost in the military service, and reports the balances to the Second Controller

The *Fourth Auditor* adjusts all accounts for the service of the Navy Department, and reports the balances to the Second Controller.

The *Fifth Auditor* adjusts all accounts for the diplomatic and consular services under the direction of the State Department, and reports the balances to the First Controller.

The *Sixth Auditor* adjusts all accounts arising from the service of the Post-office Department. His decisions are final, unless an appeal is taken within 12 months to the First Controller. He also directs writs and legal proceedings to enforce the prompt payment of moneys due to the department. He has charge of all

lands and property assigned to the United States in payment of debts to the Post-office Department.

The *Commissioner of Customs* prescribes the mode of keeping and rendering the accounts of customs, revenue, and disbursement, and for the building and repairing of custom-houses.

The *Treasurer* receives and keeps the moneys of the United States in his office, and disburses the same upon warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury, countersigned by the First Controller, and upon warrants drawn by the Postmaster-General, countersigned by the Sixth Auditor.

The *Register* keeps the accounts of public receipts and expenditures; receives the returns of commerce and navigation; and receives from the First Controller and Commissioner of Customs all accounts and vouchers adjusted by them.

The *Solicitor* superintends all cival writs commenced by the United States (except those arising in the Post Office Department). He receives returns from each term of the United States courts, showing the progress of such suits, has charge of all land and property assigned in the United States in payment of debts (except those assigned for debts due the Post-office Department), and has power to sell and dispose of the same for the benefit of the United States.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue has charge of all matters connected with the tax laws and the collection of the direct taxes. The number of officers of the Treasury Department employed in Washington exceeds three thousand.

The *Light-House Board* is under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, who is *ex-officio* president thereof. The Board directs the building and repairing of light-houses, light-vessels, buoys, and beacons. The coast is divided into thirteen light-house districts.

The *United States Coast Survey* is under the administration of the Treasury Department. It was established in 1832, for the purpose of surveying the coasts and harbors, and preparing accurate maps and charts thereof. The scientific work and operations are carried on by a superintendent and a corps of assistants, consisting of civilians and officers of the army and navy.

Collectors.—The seaboard frontiers of the United States are divided into 62 collection districts, for each of which there is a collector of customs appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate. The collectors issue clearances, or permits to leave, to all vessels sailing from the United States; certify to the correctness of manifests or bills of lading; keep account of vessels built within their districts, and make returns to the Register of the Treasury of imports and exports. Vessels arriving from foreign ports hand to the collector manifests of their cargoes, on which the duties are computed, and before the goods can be

landed these duties must be paid. The collectors are aided in the performance of their various duties by a number of clerks, appraisers, weighers, gaugers, and inspectors. The importance of these officers will be understood when it is known that during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1872, there were collected $216,370,286 in import duties, which passed through the hands of the collectors.

For the larger ports, so-called naval officers are appointed who countersign all permits, clearances, certificates, and other documents to be granted by the collectors; they also examine the collectors accounts of receipts and expenditures, and certify to them. The surveyors are stationed at the larger ports only, and superintend the inspectors, weighers, and gaugers, and report to the collectors those who fail in the performance of their duties.

The United States is divided into a large number of internal revenue districts, in each of which there is a collector, making assessments and collecting the direct taxes.

THE MINT AND COINAGE.

The principal mint is at Philadelphia, and branches are at San Francisco and Denver City. In the city of New York there is an assay-office, where gold and silver bullion, gold dust, and foreign coins are refined and assayed. The coining of all moneys is performed under regulations prepared by the Secretary of the Treasury. Fifteen pounds of silver are declared to be equal to one pound of gold. In coining, one-tenth of alloy is added to the gold and silver bullion (silver and copper in equal proportions to the former, copper alone to the latter).

The Superintendent of the Coast Survey is *ex-officio* Superintendent of *Weights and Measures*. Avoirdupois weight is used in weighing all articles except gold, silver, and precious stones. The pound of this weight is divided into 16 ounces, and one ounce into 16 drachms. One hundred pounds constitute a hundred weight, and 20 hundred-weight, or 2,000 pounds, a ton. Troy weight is used in weighing gold, silver, and precious stones. One pound troy weight is divided into 12 ounces; one ounce into 20 pennyweights, and one pennyweight into 24 grains.

The unit of liquid measure is the gallon. One gallon consists of four quarts; one quart of 2 pints; and one pint of 4 gills. The unit of dry measure is the bushel, which is 18½ inches in diameter by 8 inches deep, and contains 2,150 2-5 cubic inches. One bushel dry measure contains 4 pecks; one peck, 8 quarts; one quart, 2 pints.

A brass scale of 82 inches length, made by Troughton, of London, and sent to the Coast Survey office in Washington, where it is still preserved, was made the United States standard for long measure. This scale, though intended to be identical with the English Imperial standard, was found, upon careful comparison

with eleven carefully made meter-etalons, to differ slightly from the English scale. One meter was found to be equal to 39.-36850535 United States inches, or 3.28070878 American feet; while it is, according to comparisons made in England, equal to 3.2808992 English Imperial feet.

This difference is so slight that it becomes perceptible only in measurements of considerable length; yet it is large enough to justify the use of the term American measure, as distinct from English measure.

The following tables gives the values adopted in the United States Coast Survey.

American Measure.	English Measure.
1 Foot=0.30481218 meters.	0.304794494 meters.
1 Yard=3 feet=0.91443654 meters.	0.91438348 "
1 Fathom=6 feet=1.82887308 meters.	1.82876696 "
1 Pole, Perch, or Rod=6½ yards=5.0294055 meters.	5.02916 9 "
1 Furlong=220 yards=201.1760388 meters.	201.1643(6 "
1 Statute mile=8 furlongs=1.760 yards=1609.4083 met.	1609.3149 "

One square mile contains 640 acres, one section of land; and 26 sections make one township.

Since 1865 Congress has authorized the use of the French metric system.

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

was established in 1849. To the secretary of this department is assigned the general supervision and management of the following bureaus, or branches of the public service: the General Land Office; the Pension Bureau; the Indian Office; the Bureau of Education; the Patent Office; and the Department of Agriculture. The secretary has besides the supervision of the United States marshals and attorneys, and the clerks of the United States courts. He has also the duty of taking and returning the census of the United States.

The *General Land Office* is under the management of a Commissioner, who is charged with the surveys and sale of the public domain. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1872, public lands were disposed of as follows:

Cash sales	1,370,320 acres.	Grants to railroads	3,754.887 acres.
Located with military land warrants	389.406 "	Grants to wagon roads	465,347 "
Taken for homesteads	4,671.332 "	Approved to the states as swamps	714,215 "
Located with college scrip,	693,613 "	Indian scrip locations	5,700 "
Total			11,864,934

This amount is greater by 1,099,270 acres than was disposed of during the preceding year. The cash receipts under the various heads amounted to $3,218,100. There were surveyed during the same period 22,016,608 acres, which, added to the quantity sur-

veyed before this year, amounted to 583,664,780 acres; leaving unsurveyed an area of 1,251,633,620 acres.

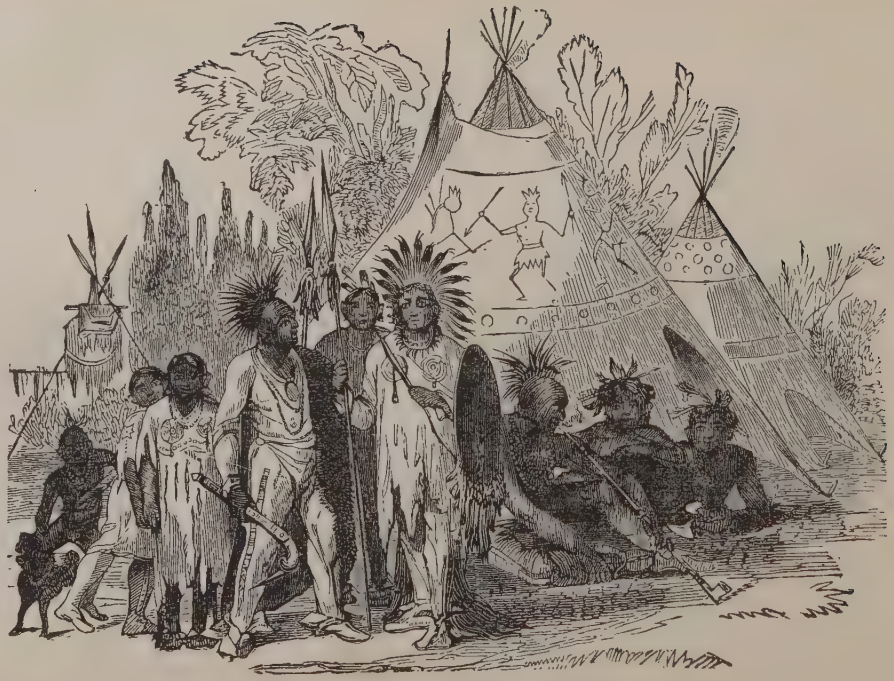
There are eighty-two land districts in the states and territories, in which there are still public lands for sale. viz.; In Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, one in each; in Missouri, three; in Alabama, three; in Mississippi, one; in Louisiana, two; in Michigan, five; in Arkansas, four; in Florida, one; in Iowa, four; in Montana, Arizona, and Utah, one in each; in Wisconsin six; in California, nine; in Nevada, four; in Minnesota, seven; in Oregon, three; in Kansas, five; in New Mexico, one; in Dakota, three; in Colarado, four; in Idaho, two; and in Wyoming, one.

The *Commissioner of Pensions* is charged with examination and adjudication of all claims arising under the various laws of Congress, granting bounty land or pensions for military or naval services in the revolutionary and subsequent wars. There were on the rolls (on June 30, 1872), the names of 95,405 military invalid pensioners, and of 113,518 widows, orphans, and dependent relatives of soldiers, who receive a total of annual pensions of $23,142,633. On the same day there were on the rolls the names of 3,179 naval pensioners, and widows, orphans, and relatives, who receive annually $405,537.

The *Commisioner of the Indian Office* superintends and directs all the public business relating to the Indians. He represents the government in the treaties made with them, causes to be distributed the annuities and presents, and carries out the policy adopted towards them by the government. He is aided by fourteen superintendents stationed in different places in the West. A number of agents are appointed by the President, who reside among the Indians and look after their interests and rights.

The *Patent Office* is under the direction of a commissioner, who is charged with the performance of "all acts touching the granting and issuing of letters patent for new inventions, discoveries, and improvements." He is assisted by a corps of examiners and assistant examiners, who ascertain whether an invention for which a patent is applied for, is new and useful or not and report to him their opinion in writing. The Commissioner issues the Patent Office Official Gazette, a monthly publication, which contains his decisions, the decisions of the Supreme Court, and the Circuit Courts, in patent cases, all changes in the rules of practice in the Office, notices of all applications for extension of patents, a brief of the specifications, and a full claim of all patents issued, together with illustrations. The number of applications for patents, re-issues and designs for the year ending June 30, 1872, was 19,587; the number of applications for extension of patents was 284; the number of applications for the registering of trade-marks was 589. During the same year there were granted 13,626 patents; 233 extensions; 556, certificates of registry for trade-marks;

AMERICAN MILITIA AND MINUTE MEN AT LEXINGTON.



A WAR PARTY OF INDIANS.

and there were filed 3,100 caveats. The fees were $700,954.86, and the expenditures $323,556.90.

The *Department of Agriculture* is under the direction of a commissioner, whose general duties are to obtain and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture, and to procure, propagate, and distribute new and valuable seeds and plants. He employs botanists, entomologists, and other persons to assist him in the performance of his various duties.

The *Bureau of Education* consists of a commissioner and three clerks. His duties are to collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the states and territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of schools and respecting school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise to promote the cause of education throughout the country.

THE DEPARTMENT OF WAR

was created in 1789, Aug. 7, in order to enable the President to carry out the provision of the Constitution relating to military affairs, and is in charge of the Secretary of War, who issues commissions, directs the movement of troops, superintends their payment, stores, clothing, arms, equipments, and ordnance, and conducts the works of military engineering. The bureaus among which these multifarious duties are distributed are under the direction of army officers.

The office of the *Commanding General* is ordinarily called the *Headquarters of the Army*, and is situated in Washington. The General has charge of the discipline of the army, the distribution of troops, and the superintendence of recruiting.

In the *Office of the Adjutant-General* are kept all the records relating to the *personnel* of the army, the muster rolls of the troops, and the correspondence with the administrative departments. All orders emanating from either the Secretary of War or the Commanding General are transmitted and published through this office, and the annual returns of the army are received by it.

The *Quartermaster-General's Office* provides quarters and transportation for the troops, storage and transportation for all army supplies, army clothing, cavalry and artillery horses, forage, etc. It has charge of the barracks and the national cemeteries.

The *Commissary-General's Office* provides subsistance, stores, constituting the rations for the troops and garrison.

The *Paymaster-General's Office* has charge of the disbursement of the pay to officers, men, and employees in the army. It receives and examines the accounts of the paymasters connected with the various commands.

The *Ordnance Bureau* has charge of the ordnance stores and the numerous armories and arsenals situated in different parts of the country.

The *Engineer's Office* has charge of the military defences of the country, the forts along the seaboard, the improvements of rivers and harbors, and the care of the Military Academy at West Point. This office is under the direction of the Chief of Engineers, who commands the engineer corps of the army.

The *Surgeon-General's Office* has control of all the sanitary affairs of the army, the management of the sick and wounded, and the military hospitals. The surgeons of the army receive their orders and assignments from, and report to, the Surgeon-General.

The *Bureau of Military Justice* was established in 1864, and consists of one judge advocate-general, holdingthe rank and pay of a brigadier-general, and an assistant judge advocate, with the rank and pay of a colonel of cavalry. The bureau receives, revises, and records the proceedings of court-marshals and courts of inquiry.

The *Signal Office*, under the direction of the commander of the signal corps, receives from the numerous signal stations established in various localities, reports on the metoric state of the atmosphere, as temperature, winds, moisture, and pressure of the atmosphere. From these reports, tri-daily forecasts, or "proabilities," are deduced and telegraphed throughout the country. Over seventy-eight per cent. of the probabilities issued during the last year have been verified, and no great storm has occurred within the United States, or along the seaboard, without due premonition being given to the points thereby threatened. The labors of this office have been highly successful, and very frequently have been instrumental in the preservation of life and property.

Army.—By act of Congress the army of the United States is 30,000 enlisted men. The term of service is three years. The army, as now organized, is composed of 16 regiments of cavalry, each of 12 companies; 25 regiments of infantry, each of 10 companies; 5 regiments of artillery, and one engineer battalion, besides the cadets of the Military Academy at West Point. In June, 1871, the army was commanded by 1 general, 1 lieutenant-general, 4 major generals, 16 brigadier-generals, 68 colonels, 83 lieutenant-colonels, 273 majors, 533 captains, and 1,136 first and second-lieutenants.

THE NAVY DEPARTMENT

is in charge of the secretary, whose duties are: to procure naval stores and materials, to direct the construction, arrangement, and equipment of vessels of war, and to execute all orders of the President relating to the naval establishment. The Secretary issues the orders to commanders of squadrons or vessels, and to the officers of the navy and marine corps. Under his authority are performed the duties of the different bureaus of the department and their orders are considered as emanating from him. He is aided by an Assistant Secretary whose duties are not specified by statute, but are assigned by the Secretary.

The *Bureau of Navy Yards and Docks* has charge of everything connected with the various navy yards, docks, wharves, and naval buildings, and also of the Naval Asylum

The *Bureau of Navigation* has charge of the Astronomical Observatory, situated near Washington, and also of the Hydrographic Office. It furnishes vessels of war with charts, maps, books, and chronometers, and has the general superintendence of the Naval Academy and the publication of the Nautical Almanac.

The *Bureau of Ordnance* has the charge of all ordnance and ordnance stores, the manufacture or purchase of canon, guns, powder and shot, and everything connected with the armament of ships.

The *Bureau of Equipment and Recruiting* is charged with providing vessels of war with sails, anchors, and other articles of equipment, and also with the enlistment of sailors and the recruiting service.

The *Bureau of Construction and Repair* has charge of the building and repairs of all vessels of war and the purchase of the necessary materials.

The *Bureau of Steam Engineering* is under the direction of the chief engineer, who superintends the construction of the marine steam-engines and decides upon plans of construction.

The *Bureau of Provisions and Clothing* contracts for and purchases all provisions and clothing used in the naval service.

The *Bureau of Medicine and Surgery* directs the purchase and distribution of medical stores, and has charge of the treatment of the sick and wounded and the marine hospitals.

In November, 1872, the navy numbered 178 vessels carrying 1,378 guns; which included 68 steamers, with 929 guns; 31 sailing vessels, with 322 guns; 51 iron-clads, with 127 guns; and 28 tugs. There were forty-five vesels in commission for sea service, carrying 462 guns, which were distributed at different cruising stations, as follows:

North Atlantic Station.—Eleven vessels, 77 guns.
South Atlantic Station.—Three vessels, 33 guns.
European Station.—Six vessels, 110 guns.
Asiatic Station.—Eleven vessels, 116 guns.
North Pacific Station.—Five vessels, 65 guns.
South Pacific Station.—Five vessels, 51 guns.
Special Service.—One vessel, with 10 guns, and two store ships,

THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT

is under the direction of the Postmaster-General, who is aided by three assistant postmasters.

The *First Assistant Postmaster-General* is at the head of the *Appointment Office.* He attends to the establishment or discontinuance of post-offices, the changes of sites and names of such offices, the appointment and removal of postmasters and local agents and to the instructions given to postmasters. This office further provides for the marking and rating stamps and letter balance for postmasters, and blanks and stationery for the use of the department, and has the supervision of the ocean mail-steamship lines, and the international postal arrangements with foreign governments.

There were, in 1872, 31,863 post-offices in the country, 2,452 of which were money-order post-offices, or 1,818 more offices than in the preceding year; and there were issued 655,380,820 letter and newspaper postage stamps, which number may be assumed to be nearly identical with the number of letters and parcels sent through the mails. The handling of this immense amount of mail matter required, besides the 31,863 postmasters, 5,544 contractors, 3,754 clerks, 1,442 carriers, 764 route agents, 642 railway postal clerks, 146 mail route messengers, 95 local agents, and 59 special agents. There were thus in the employ of the Post-office Department, 44,655 officials, including the Post-master General and his 345 assistants and clerks, in the General Post-Office in Washington. During the same year 12,774,064 letters were sent to foreign countries, and 11.588,436 letters were received from foreign countries.

The *Second Assistant Postmaster-General* is at the head of the Contract Office. It is his duty to arrange the mail service, to enter into contracts for carrying the mails, to fix the departures and arrivals on all the routes, the points of distribution, and to make regulations for the government of the domestic mail service. This office reports weekly to the Auditor all contracts executed, and all orders affecting accounts for mail transportation. To the Inspection Division of the Contract Office is assigned the duty of receiving and examining the registers of the arrivals and departures of the mails, and reports of mail failures; of noting the

delinquencies of contractors, and reporting thereon to the Postmaster-General; of providing mail bags, and of securing the mail against depredations.

During the year 1872 the country had 7,259 mail routes representing a total of 251,398 miles; of which 57,911 miles were by railroad, 18,860 by steamboat, and 174,627 by horse power. The annual mail transportation passed over 664,984,322 miles, *i. e.*, a distance 4,600 times as large as the circumference of the globe.

The *Third Assistant Postmaster-General* is at the head of the Finance Office, and supervises the financial business of the department not assigned by law to the Auditor, embracing accounts with the draft offices and other depositories of the department, the issuing of warrants and drafts in payment of balances reported by the Auditor to be due to mail contractors and other persons. He has supervision of the accounts of officers under order to deposit their quarterly returns of postage. He has also charge of the dead-letter office and of the issuing of postage stamps.

The Postmaster-General estimates the total expenditures for the mail service of the year ending June 30, 1873, to be $30,853,167, and the revenue from the sale of postage stamps, the money order business, etc., to be $24,552.505, leaving a deficit to be supplied by congressional appropriation, of $6,310,592.

THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL'S OFFICE.

The duty of the Attorney-General is to prosecute and conduct all suits in the Supreme Court, in which the United States is a party, and to give his advice and opinion upon questions of law, when required by the President, or when requested by the head of any department. He is also charged with the general superintendence and direction of all United States attorneys and marshals, as to the manner of discharging their respective duties. He is aided in the performance of his duties by a solicitor-general and two assistant attorneys-general. He further examines the titles of all land to be purchased by the United States as the sites of arsenals, light-houses, custom-houses, and other public works; receives all applications for the appointment of judges, district attorneys, and marshals, and prepares statements to the President on applications for pardons, and the remission of imprisonment of public debtors.

REPRESENTATIVES IN FOREIGN LANDS.

These are Embassadors, Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary, Resident Ministers, Chargè d'Affaires and Consuls. Some of them are officials sent on special occasions and for special and exceptional services. The three first named

are of the highest rank and are sent to the Great Powers. Resident Ministers are sent to less important nations, but like those of higher rank are clothed with large powers to represent our interests. Commissioners, Chargè d'Affaires, Secretaries of Legation and Consuls are of still lower rank. All these officers are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The powers and duties of these officers are very different in different cases, and can hardly be stated in general terms. They represent the general interests of our government abroad. Consuls, however, have well defined duties, which are as follows:

1. Whenever a vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States arrives at the port where he is stationed, it is his duty to receive the ship's papers, and to see if they are all correct.

2. It is his duty to provide for sick, disabled, and destitute American seamen, and to send them home by some vessel going to the United States.

3. He must hear the complaints of seamen, and settle disputes between the captain and men; and for good cause he may discharge the whole ship's crew.

4. It is made his duty to receive and take charge of the personal property of any citizen of the United States who has died within his Consulate, and to send any balance which may be left after paying his debts and necessary expenses, to the treasury of the United States, to be held in trust for the legal claimants. He must also give notice to the Secretary of State of the death of such person.

5. For the purpose of carrying out and executing certain treaties made between the United States and China, Japan, Siam, and Turkey, Consuls to those countries have been empowered with judicial functions. They were allowed to act as judges, and to try and punish citizens of the United States who had committed crimes there. These, however, were extraordinary powers in special cases, and by no means common to the consular office.

6. In the absence of a minister or diplomatic agent of the United States, the President may authorize a Consul to perform the duties of such foreign minister; but these powers are rarely conferred on them. Their ordinary duties relate to commercial affairs, and to such as are before stated.

7. A Vice-Consul, or deputy Consul, is one appointed to act temporarily in case of sickness or absence of the Consul. His powers, while acting, are the same as those of the Consul, in whose place he acts. Every Consul is required to give bonds for the faithful performance of his duties.

8. Our commerce has been extended to almost every part of the globe, and for this reason we need a great number of these officials. Their services are required at all great seaports, and at

many smaller ones. The compensation varies according to the amount of business to be transacted by them, from $7,500 down to $500. Some do not receive any salary, but are allowed the fees they are authorized to charge for their services.

9. It is his duty to give his government and countrymen all such information as he possesses in relation to the laws and practices of the country to which he is sent, which it would be important for them to know; and especially is it his duty to look after the interests and welfare of his countrymen when they are within his Consulate and to see that no wrong or injustice is done to them by the people or government where he resides.

THE MILITARY ACADEMY.

This institution was established by act of Congress, in 1802, and is located at West Point, on the Hudson river.

It was established and has been continued at a great expense, for the purpose of teaching and training up young men in the science and art of war, that in any emergency the country might have a sufficient number of men, educated and skilled in all such arts and sciences as appertain to war. Hence, mathematics, engineering, gunnery, drawing, natural and experimental philosophy and military tactics, are among the principal branches taught.

Every State and Territory is entitled to send as many cadets as it has Senators and Representatives in Congress. The District of Columbia is allowed one. To give every part of the country an equal chance, it was enacted that each Congressional district in each State and Territory should be allowed to send one cadet, to be educated at West Point. These are generally nominated for appointment by the Congressmen from their respective districts, and the President appoints. The cadet must be an actual resident of the district for which he is appointed.

In addition to these, it is provided by the same act, that ten more cadets may be appointed at large; *i. e.*, without regard to Congressional districts. In order to be admitted as a cadet, the candidate must be well versed in reading, writing, and arithmetic; must not be under 14 nor over 21 years of age; and must sign articles, agreeing to serve the United States eight years. After he has finished his studies and has graduated, he is considered as a candidate for a commission in the army, according to the duties he may be competent to perform.

DEPOTS OF WAR MATERIAL.

As early as 1794, Congress enacted that three or four arsenals and magazines, with an armory attached to each, should be established for the safe keeping of military stores. An arsenal is a

place where arms and military stores are kept. An armory is a place where arms are made or repaired. The armories where arms are manufactured are at Springfield, in Massachusetts, and at Harpers' Ferry, in Virginia. But there are many others where they are repaired.

In 1808, the President was authorized to purchase sites and to erect as many more arsenals and manufactories of arms as he might deem expedient. Each of these establishments is placed under the direction of the Ordnance Department. In each armory there is employed a master armorer, who superintends the workmen. In addition to those already named there are arsenals and armories at Pittsburgh and Bridesburgh, in Pennsylvania; at Washington City; at Watervliet, in New York; Watertown, Mass.; Columbus, Ohio; at Indianapolis, Ind., and at Rock Island, Ill.

MILITARY HOSPITALS AND ASYLUMS.

In 1851, Congress passed an act for the establishment of military asylums, for the purpose of making the same provision for wounded and disabled soldiers as had already been made for that class of seamen. These institutions are located in different sections of the country where deemed most eligible and convenient for those who need such a place of refuge. They are placed under the government of a board of commissioners, consisting of the general in chief, and eight other military officers of high rank, who submit their acts to the Secretary of War for his approval.

The officers of these asylums must be taken from the army, and consist of a governor, a deputy governor, and secretary, who is also treasurer. The funds for their support are raised by a tax of twenty-five cents per month on the soldiers, to which are added the fines and penalties adjudged against soldiers by courts martial, with forfeitures for desertion, &c.

Persons receiving pensions from the government may be admitted into these asylums upon condition that they surrender their pensions to the use of the institution while they remain in it.

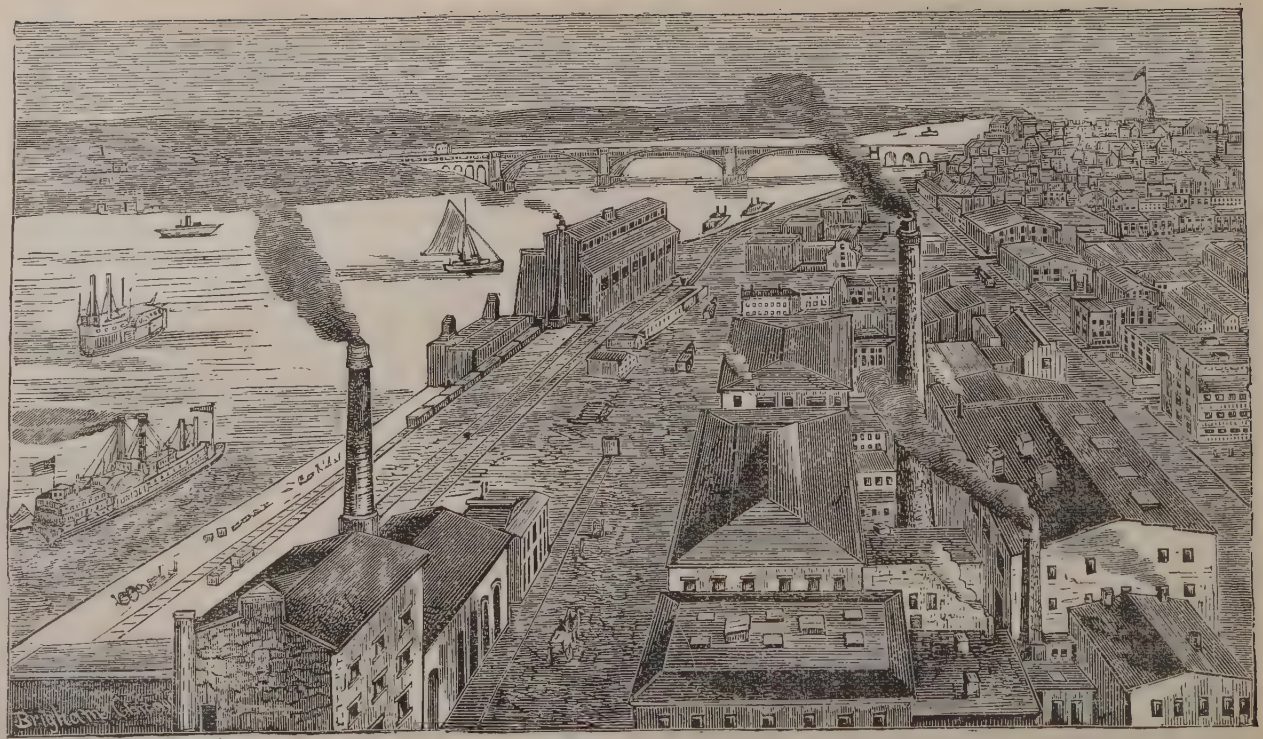
The commissioners are authorized to buy sites and buildings for these institutions, and to receive donations of them. They also furnish them with whatever is necessary for the comfort of the inmates, and make such laws and regulations for their government as they deem proper.

Deserters, mutineers, and habitual drunkards, are excluded from the benefits of these asylums.

INSANE ASYLUM.

Among these benevolent institutions provided by a generous government for the support of those who have faithfully served their country, the insane asylum ought to be noticed. The title

BOSTON, 40 YEARS AGO.



VIEW OF ST. LOUIS.

of this establishment is "the government hospital for the insane." Its objects are the cure and kind treatment of the insane of the army and navy, and of the District of Columbia. It is under the control of a board of nine visitors, all of whom must be citizens of the said District. They are appointed by the President, and annually report to the Secretary of the Interior the condition of the asylum and its inmates. They serve without compensation.

The superintendent must be a physician. There is a farm attached to the asylum, which is under the direction of the superintendent, who receives patients upon the order of the Secretary the War or the Navy, and upon the order of the Secretary of the Interior. He may receive indigent insane persons residing in the District of Columbia. If other than indigent persons are admitted, they must pay for the privilege a sum not less than the cost of their support.

The military hospitals in time of war are for temporary purposes, and are established wherever the army happens to be, and especially near where the great battles have been fought, that immediate relief may be given to the sick and wounded. These are established by the commanders of the army, and are under their control.

NAVY AND MARINE HOSPITALS.

In 1811 an act was passed to establish navy hospitals, for the exclusive use of such seamen as belonged to the navy. This new institution was at first placed under the management of a board of commissioners known as the commissioners of navy hospitals. This commission consisted of the Secretaries of the Navy, Treasury, and War. But in 1832 this was changed, and the Secretary of the Navy was made sole trustee of the navy hospital fund, which was made up of $50,000 appropriated by Congress for that purpose, together with twenty cents per month collected from seamen belonging to the navy, and the fines imposed on navy officers, seamen, and marines.

The commissioners were authorized to purchsse or erect suitable buildings for navy hospitals.

THE MARINE HOSPITALS

are located near important seaports. At these places seamen depart for, and arrive from their voyages, and are found in the greatest numbers; and here the funds for the support of the marine hospitals are collected, as is the tonnage on ships, viz.: by the collectors of the ports. For this purpose the law authorizes the collectors of customs to demand and receive the sum of twenty cents per month from the wages of every sailor; and every master of a vessel is obliged to render to the collector an accurate account

of the number of seamen on board his vessel, and of the time they have been employed by him, since his last entry into any port of the United States. These twenty cents the captain must pay the collector, but he is allowed to deduct it from each seaman's wages. In this manner the funds for the building, furnishing, and support of the marine hospitals are raised. The collectors of the ports pay them into the UnitedStates Treasury, and the Treasurer disburses them to the directors of the hospitals as they are needed. The directors are appointed by the President. They appropriate the funds, and have the general direction and management of the institutions.

The money thus collected from seamen is called "hospital money," and the fund is denominated "the marine hospital fund." In 1864 there were 24 marine hospitals in the United States.

NAVY YARDS.

Here are gathered such stores and materials as are required for the construction or repairs of vessels, and hundreds of skilled workmen are constantly employed in rendering the navy effective, replacing vessels that have become unseaworthy, repairing damages, or building such vessels of special construction as the varying demands of the service may require.

These are established at different places along the coast, most convenient for the purpose. There is one at Philadelphia, Pa., at Brooklyn, N. Y., at Portsmouth, Va., at Pensacola, Fla. Here vessels are laid up when not in "commission" or active service, or are sent for repairs, or to obtain their stores before departing to their distant stations. All the officers necessary for keeping all these matters in order are stationed at these yards; and the Navy Department, by these means, preserves the same perfect system of organization and efficiency as we have seen to characterize other branches of the executive administration.

THE NAVAL ACADEMY.

This school is now established at Annapolis, in the State of Maryland, near Washington. The pupils are called midshipmen. They are taught navigation and such other branches of science as are necessary to make them good seamen and naval officers. Each Congressional District in every State and Territory is entitled to send two students to be educated at the Academy. The District of Columbia is also entitled to send two. Besides which, the President is allowed to appoint ten additional ones at large, and three more from the boys enlisted in the navy.

After their graduating examination, if they pass, they are commissioned as ensigns in the navy, and rank according to merit. Before admission, they are examined according to the regulations

made by the Secretary of the Navy, and must be between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years, sound, robust, and of good constitution.

THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

Nautical Science and Astronomy have advanced hand in hand; and to perfect the former as much as possible the United States Government established the Naval Observatory. This institution is located in Washington, and was originated by act of Congress in 1842, and put in operation in 1844.

The observatory was built and furnished with various astronomical and philosophical instruments, and a corps of professors were appointed to watch the movements of the heavenly bodies, and to make such observations and experiments as would enable them to determine many unsettled questions which relate to the science of navigation; and incidentally to another great government work, having especial reference to the same object; that is, the coast survey.

The professors are assiduous in their labors, and publish the results of their observations and the facts they have determined These are not only of use to our own seamen, but to those of all nations who are doing business on the great deep. Here the charts made by the coast survey are deposited, and from hence all our national vessels are furnished with them, and with all the nautical instruments they require.

The charts, instruments and books relating to astronomy and navigation, found here, make it the headquarters and depot of nautical science in the United States.

THE COAST SURVEY.

The Coast Survey is an organization employed in a thorough and scientific study of the shores of our country for a sufficient distance out from the land to ascertain all the features concealed by the water that may have a bearing on the safety of our navy and commerce.

This work, like that relating to light houses, is under the management of a board, consisting of a superintendent, two principal assistants, two naval officers, and four officers of the army. These nine constitute the board. Then there are as many officers of the army and navy employed in the execution of the work as are deemed necessary. And the public vessels, by direction of the President, may be used in order to facilitate the work, for much of it must be done at sea. The survey extends 20 leagues from the shore. The surveyors must make accurate charts of the whole coast, in which are laid down all the islands, shoals, roads or anchorage grounds within twenty leagues of any part of the shore

of the United States. The courses or distances between the principal capes or headlands must be laid down, together with the soundings (depths of water) and everything else necessary to make a complete and accurate chart of every part of our coasts.

An annual report of this work must be made to Congress in December of each year, accompanied with charts, showing the progress of the work, the number of persons employed, the expenses incurred, the amount of work finished, and what is unfinished. These reports and charts are carefully preserved, and copies of them may be had at Washington for the use of our naval and merchant ships, to which they are of great service, as guides, whenever they are on or near the coast.

LIGHT HOUSES.

These, with Buoys, and Beacons, are a necessary practical supplement to the labors of the Coast Survey. Buoys and Beacons indicate the shoals, or dangerous rocks and reefs beneath the surface of the water, in the daytime; while light houses indicate the same, and show the mariner the bearings of the land, in the night; and by studying, in connection with these, the charts of the coast supplied by the Coast Survey, he may make his way as securely in the night or day through the concealed dangers of the treacherous waters as a landsman along a beaten highway.

Keepers are appointed by the government to keep them in repair, and to see that they are properly lighted every night. They are located at prominent points, and at dangerous places, all long the extensive lines of coast and shores.

To the end that light houses should be constructed and kept in repair, and that competent men might have the whole matter in charge, a law of 1852 authorized the President to appoint two officers of the navy, of high rank, one officer of the corps of engineers of the army, one officer of the topographical engineers, and two civilians of high scientific attainments, to form a LIGHT HOUSE BOARD for the United States. This board is attached to the Treasury Department, and the Secretary of the Treasury superintends its operations. The board has in charge the building, illumination, and inspection of light houses, light vessels, buoys, beacons, sea marks, and their appendages.

Congress has imposed a tax, or laid a duty of 50 cents per ton on all foreign vessels entering any ports of the United States. This is called "LIGHT MONEY." It is collected in the same way as tonnage duties are, *i. e.*, by the collector of the port where the ship arrives.

LETTERS OF MARQUE AND REPRISAL.

A letter of Marque and Reprisal is a formal commission given to the commander of a private armed vessel, called a privateer,

authorizing him to capture the ships and goods of the subjects of a nation with which we are at war. When such letters are issued by the United States they are signed by the President and sealed with the great seal. Without such commission, thus signed and sealed, any capture made by the commander of a private vessel would be piracy. If a capture is made, it must be made according to the laws of war, as recognized by civilized nations, and according to the instructions given by the President. Any conduct on the part of a privateer, contrary to these rules, would vitiate his proceedings, and he would not be entitled to the property he had captured.

The captured vessel is called a prize, and must be taken into some port of the United States, or into some port of a country in amity with the United States, where legal proceedings are taken before some court of competent jurisdiction; and the capture and all the circumstances of it inquired into; and if all is found to have been done according to the laws of civilized nations, the captured vessel and cargo is condemned as a prize. But if not condemned, the captors lose her. When adjudged to be a lawful prize, the ship and cargo are sold, and the money is divided between the officers and men, according to rank, and according to the laws of Congress on this subject. These laws give the whole to the captors, when the ship taken is of equal or superior force to the ship making the capture; but if of inferior force, then the United States takes one-half.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS.

An Elector, in the sense of the Constitution, is one who has been appointed to choose or elect the President of the United States. The people, by law of Congress, assemble on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November preceding the close of a presidential term, and vote for the electors. The electors in each State are called its Electoral College. They meet on the first Wednesday in December following their election, in their respective States, and vote by ballot for a President and Vice-President. These cannot both, according to the Constitution, be citizens of the same State. They count, certify, and seal these votes and send the sealed package by a messenger, appointed for that express purpose, to the President of the United States Senate. On the second Wednesday in February following, the members of the Senate and House of Representatives assemble together, the packages are opened and the votes counted in their presence, and the result is officially proclaimed.

SUFFRAGE AND CITIZENSHIP.

The right pertaining to citizenship, to vote for such officers as are elected by the people, is called suffrage. When that right is acquired with respect to one class of officers it always extends to the whole, from petty town or city officials, to high officers of the State or United States government—all, in short, who obtain office directly from the people.

The Constitution defines who shall be regarded as citizens of the United States, and all such are declared by it to be also citizens of the State in which they reside. It declares "all persons, born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to its jurisdiction" to be citizens. Indian tribes are mostly regarded as foreign nations, and have such rights as treaties give them, but are not taxed and do not vote; therefore they are not regarded as citizens.

Suffrage does not belong to *all* citizens. The special regulation of the voting prerogative was not assumed by the Constitution, nor delegated to Congress, and it is generally conceded that it belongs to the State governments. The regulations in the States are not uniform, but in no state do women or minors vote. (Women vote in Wyoming Territory.) Minors are supposed, however, to be represented, as to their interests, by their guardians, and females by husbands or brothers. Some of the states make minor restrictions as to length of residence in the state, and require a certain amount of property to constitute a voter, and in some naturalization is not required—so that the range of the right of suffrage varies within small limits, in different states. Whatever rule is adopted by the states has been accepted as the basis of suffrage for that state by the general government, when members of Congress and President and Vice-President are voted for.

The 15th amendment to the Constitution gives the colored men the same rights to suffrage and citizenship as white men.

CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS—CONGRESSMEN.

Each state is entitled to a number of Representatives in Congress proportioned to its inhabitants; but, instead of counting the whole number together, and leaving all the people in the state to vote for all the representatives of their state, it is divided into districts, each containing the prescribed number entitled to representation. The voters, then, in each district, select or nominate the men they wish to vote for—and thus they find it easy to send men they know and on whom they can rely to secure their interests. Each Member of Congress, therefore, is chosen by a single district. The districting of states is done by their State Legislatures.

Sometimes a state is admitted into the Union before it has as many inhabitants as the law requires to one Congressman, in which case the law is relaxed, and they are permitted at least one Representative. Contiguous counties or towns are set apart in this way and numbered as 1st, 2d, 3d, &c., Congressional District. In large cities as many wards, lying together, as include the requisite number, are erected into districts. In case the number of Congressmen allotted to a state is larger than the number of districts, those in excess are voted for by the state at large. They are arranged as soon as possible after the census, so that this does not often occur. In the Western States the number continually increases, and changes must be made after each census.

The term Congressman properly applies to the members of both Houses; it is, by common usage, confined to members of the lower House, those of the upper House being distinguished as Senators; the abbreviation M. C. Member of Congress, means a Representative.

These are the only members of any branch of the government who are chosen and elected directly by the people. Any citizen, whether native or foreign born, may become a Member of Congress, if he can obtain the consent of the voters in his district; but he must have been a citizen during the previous seven years.

The members of the House of Representatives are elected for two years, the members of the Senate for six. The Senate is composed of two persons, chosen by the legislature of each state, to represent it as a whole. The first Congress under the Constitution met in New York City, where two sessions were held, when it was removed to Philadelphia. It remained there until 1800, when Washington became the capital. In 1874 there were 37 states and therefore 74 Senators. The number of Representatives was fixed by a law of March, 1873, at 292, at which number it will remain until the next census in 1880.

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The charges to be prepaid. Without the deposit of copies above required, the copyright is void, and a penalty of $25 is incurred.

4. No copyright hereafter issued is valid unless notice is given by inserting in every copy published, on the title page or the page following, if it be a book; or, if a map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, engraving, photograph, painting, drawing, chromo, statue, statuary, or model or design intended to be pefected as a work of the fine arts, by inscribing upon some portion of the face or front thereof, or on the face of the substance on which the same is mounted, the following words, viz.: *Entered according to act of Congress, in the year———, by ———, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, at Washington.*

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7. Any copyright is assignable in law by any instrument of writing, but such assignment must be recorded in the office of the Librarian of Congress within sixty days from its date. The fee for this record is fifteen cents for every 100 words, and ten cents for every 100 words for a copy of the record of assignment.

ANNUAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRESENTS TO THE INDIANS.

VIEW OF LAKE SARATOGA.

8. To secure a copyright for a painting, statue, or model or design intended to be perfected as a work of the fine arts, so as to prevent infringement by copying, engraving, or vending such design, a definite description must accompany the application for copyright, and a photograph of the same, at least as large as "cabinet size," must be mailed to the Librarian of Congress within ten days from the completion of the work.

9. Every applicant for a copyright must state distinctly the name and residence of the claimant, and whether the right is claimed as author, designer or proprietor.

REPORTS.

The President's Messages are of the nature of reports made by the Chief Executive to the legislative body for its information and guidance. So it is enacted that the Secretaries of State, Treasury, War, Navy, Interior, and Postmaster General, together with the commissioners of the different bureaus and boards attached to these departments, shall annually report to Congress. Heads of departments report directly to Congress. So do many of the commissioners who are at the head of bureaus. Boards report to the heads of departments to which they are attached.

The reports not only furnish the law-making power with such information as it needs, but serve as a check of any official misconduct. The annual reports of Secretaries of the Treasury, War, and Navy, together with that of the Postmaster General, are state papers which rank in importance next to the annual message of the President.

After each Congress has convened and organized, the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House appoint what are denominated the standing committees of each of these bodies.

When bills are presented to be passed into laws, or petitions are sent in, they are always referred to the appropriate committee, which examines them and reports to the body (of the Senate or House) their conclusions upon the merits or demerits, propriety or impropriety, of granting the petition, or of passing the bill under consideration.

PASSPORTS.

These are documents issued by the Secretary of State, or our representatives abroad, authorized by him, informing whom it may concern that the bearer is a citizen of the United States, that he travels under its protection and that satisfaction will be demanded of any one who does him wrong. Passports sometimes authorize persons to go where those not having them are forbidden to go. These documents are also issued to foreigners as well

as our own citizens, who wish to visit the Indian Territory. Ships leaving our ports are required to take papers of the nature of passports.

THE CENSUS.

The Constitution provides that the census shall be taken, or the people counted, once every ten years. The first census was taken in 1790, and this has been repeated every tenth year since. The work is done by the United States Marshals and their assistants, the result returned to the Department of the Interior. A report of it is laid before Congress by the Secretary of the Interior and from its facts and figures the number of Representatives apportioned to the several states. The census reports are published in book form and contain, in addition to the population, the number of acres of land under cultivation, the number of bushels of grain produced, the number of horses, cattle, etc., and statistics of every kind.

THE CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY.

This library was established in 1800 and contains works supposed to be useful to legislation, *e. g.*, all the laws enacted by Congress, the records of its proceedings, the laws of the States and of many foreign countries, together with many books on miscellaneous subjects relating to government and political economy. No document can be taken out of the library except by the President, Vice-president, and the members of Congress. Judges of the Supreme Court, however, the heads of departments, the Attorney-General, the members of the diplomatic corps, the Secretary of the Senate, the Clerk of the House, the Chaplain of Congress, all the Ex-Presidents, the Solicitor of the Treasury, and others properly authorized, have access to the library to consult its books and documents.

THE PUBLIC PRINTING.

This is done by the government printing office under the direction of a superintendent, who is required to make a report to Congress at the commencement of every session. The public printing includes all the proceedings of both Houses of Congress, all the laws enacted, all the bills proposed, the President's Messages, the reports of the heads of departments and the reports and commissions of army and navy officers, of investigating committees, of various superintendents, agents and government employes. These and other things are printed, sometimes only for the use of Congress and sometimes for circulation among the people.

IMPEACHMENT.

In the second article, section four, of the Constitution, these words are found: "The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."

Impeachment is a procedure against office holders only, for the purpose of removing them from office. It inflicts no other punishment.

The House of Representatives alone can present charges looking to the trial of an officer of the government by impeachment. It appoints a committee to conduct the prosecution before the Senate, to which these charges are presented.

The Senate alone has the power to try the accused party. When trying a case of impeachment it acts as a court, and from its decision there is no appeal. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presides, but in no other case. No person can be convicted in a trial of impeachment, unless two-thirds of the Senate concur in finding the accused guilty of the alleged offense.

A bailiff, a clerk, a crier and messenger, all of whom are appointed by the court, make up the remaining officials.

The claimants stand in the relation of plaintiffs, and the government in that of defendant.

DISTRICT ATTORNEYS.

These officers are next in rank to the Judges of the Circuit and District Courts with which their duties are connected. Their relation to the government, in the class of cases that come before those courts, is the same as that of the Attorney General in the Supreme Court. They are its official legal counselors in all cases involving the interests of the General Government before the Circuit and District Courts in their several districts. They are appointed in the same manner; that is, nominated by the President, and confirmed by the Senate. It is their duty "to prosecute in such district all delinquents for crimes and offences cognizable under the authority of the United States, and all civil actions in which the United States shall be concerned." They are his clients, and he must enforce their rights, and defend them, in the same manner that any attorney protects and defends his client in any of the state courts. In case of necessity, he may appoint a substitute to act in his place. All fees over and above what he is allowed as compensation for his services, he must report and pay into the United States Treasury.

He must defend collectors of the customs and other revenue officers in his district, when suits are brought against them in their

official capacity, and must report to the Solicitor of the Treasury the number of suits determined and pending in his district. And when prize cases have been determined, or are pending in the District Court of his district, he must report the state and condition of each case to the Secretary of the Navy.

District Attorneys are appointed for four years, but may be removed at the pleasure of the President. Their compensation depends on the amount of business to be done in their respective districts. When important ports of entry, such as New York or Boston, lie in their districts, their duties are very numerous, and they receive a corresponding compensation.

UNITED STATES MARSHALS.

United States Marshals are the ministerial officers of the United States courts. Their duties and responsibilities are very similar, and nearly identical with the duties and responsibilities of sheriffs in the courts of the several states. They are appointed by the President and Senate, for a term of four years. They appoint their own deputies, and their compensation consists of fees instead of a salary. There is a Marshal in every Judicial District in the United States, and there are fifty-nine of these districts in all.

A District Court is held in every district; and it is the Marshal's duty to attend the sittings of these courts, and also those of the United States Circuit Courts, when they happen to sit in his district. The Marshal for the District of Columbia must also attend the sittings of the Supreme Court, and execute its precepts. It is the duty of the Marshals to serve all writs and precepts emanating from them, whether of a civil or criminal character; and to execute the judgments and decrees of these tribunals; and for this purpose they are authorized by law, (if necessary,) to command such assistance as they may need in the execution of their duties. They are also held answerable for the delivery to their successors of all prisoners who may be in their custody at the time of their removal, or at the expiration of their term of office.

They also have the custody of all vessels and goods seized by any officer of the revenue. It is their duty also to summon, and to pay, jurors and witnesses in behalf of any prisoner to be tried for a capital offense, under the laws of the United States. In the remarks made under the head "Census," we stated that it was the duty of the Marshals to superintend and direct the enumeration of the people; and to collect such statistical facts as the law requires. This they do through deputies, whom they appoint for that special purpose.

The United States Marshal is also required, on the first day of January and July of each year, to make a return of all the fees

and emoluments of his office to the Secretary of the Interior; and if they amount to more than $6,000 per year, he must pay the surplus into the Treasury of the United States.

GRAND JURY.

The fifth article of the amendments to the Constitution, reads: "No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury; except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war or public danger." This constitutional provision makes a Grand Jury a very important agent or instrumentality in the execution of the laws, and also a safeguard of the liberties and rights of the people. It secures every person from the expense and disgrace of a trial for infamous crimes, unless a Grand Jury of his countymen shall find upon inquiry and investigation, that there are good reasons for believing that the person so charged has committed the alleged offense.

A Grand Jury, when called to take cognizance of violations of the laws of the United States, to find indictments against those who are charged with them, is summoned by a judge of a United States court in the circuit or district where the alleged crime has been perpetrated; and it must take notice of all crimes against the laws of the United States, which may be brought to its knowledge, within the circuit or district in which it sits. Hence, if ordered by a Circuit Judge, its powers extend over all those states which lie in that circuit. But when ordered by a District Judge, its powers extend only to that district in which it sits, and a district never embraces more than one state, and in many cases a state is divided into two or three districts.

GRAND AND PETIT JURIES.

A Grand Jury never acts but in criminal cases. A Petit Jury acts in both criminal and civil cases. The finding or conclusion arrived at by a Grand Jury is called a presentment, or an indictment. The finding of a Petit Jury is called its verdict.

A Grand Jury sits alone (not in presence of the court), and deliberates upon such matters of a criminal character as it possesses knowledge of, or which may be brought to its notice by the court or by other persons; and when it finds that great evils exist, and wrongs have been perpetrated, it presents them to the court, and calls the attention of the law officers to them; which is equivalent to a recommendation that judicial proceedings should be commenced to abate the evil, or to punish the wrong doer. This is called a presentment of the Grand Jury.

And when they find, upon such evidence as they have, that a great crime has been perpetrated, or that they have good reason so to believe, and that it has been perpetrated by some person specified, they report their finding or conclusion to the Court. This is called an indictment by the Grand Jury; after which the person so charged is arrested, if at large, and can be found, and is either imprisoned or held to bail for his appearance at court to stand trial.

A Grand Jury never tries a case.

A Petit Jury sits with the court, hears the pleadings and arguments of counsel on both sides, listens to the evidence of witnesses; and then hears the charge of the judge, as to the law applicable to the case; after which they withdraw and deliberate alone upon the case, and if they agree in a criminal case, their verdict is "Guilty," or "Not Guilty;" if in a civil suit, they say how much one party is indebted (if any), to the other.

ELECTIONS.

In choosing the President and Vice-President of the United States, the people vote for Electors, who afterward vote for the above named officers. United State Senators are chosen by the State Legislature. All other officers are elected by a direct vote of the people, and all elections are by ballot.

RATIO OF REPRESENTATION.

The ratio of representation simply means the ratio between the whole population of the United States, and the whole number of their Representatives in Congress; and this of course includes the ratio between the people of any individual State, and the Representatives it is entitled to; both being estimated upon the same basis, and determined by the same rule.

After having determined how many members shall compose the lower House of Congress, the next step is to apport on these members among all the States in the ratio of their population. If one State has twice the number of inhabitants that another has, it will be entitled to twice the number of Representatives in Congress, with this one exception, which is, that by a provision in the Constitution, every State, without regard to its population, is entitled to one Representative in the lower House.

The adjustment of this matter is all provided for in the Constitution, that is, in its general features; but it devolves upon Congress in every tenth year to re-adjust and re-apportion the Representatives among the several States, according to the population of each State as shown by the last census, which is taken every tenth year; and when the apportionment is once made it remains the same for the next ten years, when the census is taken again, and a new apportionment is made.

Up to the present time (1874) this has been done nine times. It was done the first time by the convention which formed the Constitution. That apportionment is found in the Constitution, and is as follows:

To New Hamsphire,	3	Delaware,	1
Massachusetts,	8	Maryland,	6
Rhode Island,	1	Virginia,	10
Connecticut,	5	North Carolina,	5
New York,	6	South Carolina,	5
New Jersey,	4	Georgia,	3
Pennsylvania,	8		

By this it will be seen that the first Congress consisted of but 65 members.

The Constitution also provided that Representatives should not exceed one to every 30,000 people. The next year after the government went into operation, (1790,) the first census was taken, and as soon as the result was known, a new apportionment was made. This was done in 1792, and was made upon the ratio of one Representative to every 33,000 of representative population.

In 1870 the ninth census was taken, and in 1872 Congress decided that after March 3d, 1873, the Representatives should comprise 292 members, being one Representative for every 135,239 of the population and apportioned them among the several States as follows:

Alabama,	8	Missouri,	13
Arkansas,	4	Nebraska,	1
California,	4	Nevada,	1
Connecticut,	4	New Hampshire,	3
Delaware,	1	New Jersey,	7
Florida,	2	New York,	33
Georgia,	9	North Carolina,	8
Mississippi,	6	Ohio,	20
Illinois,	19	Oregon,	1
Indiana,	13	Pennsylvania,	27
Iowa,	9	Rhode Island,	2
Kansas,	3	South Carolina,	5
Kentucky,	10	Tennessee,	10
Louisana,	6	Texas,	6
Maine,	5	Vermont,	3
Maryland,	6	Virginia,	9
Massachusetts,	11	West Virginia,	3
Michigan,	9	Wisconsin,	8
Minnesota,	3		

In the apportionment no regard is had to the Territories or to their population. A Territorial member has no right to vote on any question, but has only the right to debate; and for this reason he is not, in the fullest sense, a member, and is not counted in adjusting the number of which the House is made to consist.

GOVERNMENT PRISONS.

The general government does not own, and has never built, prisons for the confinement of offenders against its laws. It uses the prisons of the States whenever they will allow it. This arrange-

ment between the general and State governments has been made in nearly if not all the States; the United States paying for the support of their prisoners.

But in case any State should refuse to make such an agreement, the United States marshal of any district where a prisoner is to be confined, is authorized to procure some building where the prisoners may be safely confined in the district where they have been tried and convicted, or where they have been arrested and are held for trial.

PROCLAMATIONS.

A Proclamation is an official notice published by one high in authority, for the purpose of giving reliable and authoritative information to the people that something has been done, or will soon be done, which is important for them to know, that they may act, or refrain from acting, according to the information contained in the proclamation. These proclamations are made known to the country through the most extensive channels of information that can be used for conveying intelligence to everybody in the Republic. In our day, and in our country, the newspapers are the best means that can be used for this purpose.

These documents are official acts brought before the people in due form and solemnity. Sometimes they are only recommendations; at others they have all the force of organic law, or the acts of Congress.

It has, for some years, been the custom of the Executive to designate some day toward the close of the year as a day of thanksgiving, recommending the day to be observed in a religious manner. Important changes in the commercial affairs between us and some foreign country are made known by the same method.

A memorable proclamation was made by President Lincoln, in 1862, by which he made known to the country, and especially to the Southern States, that if they continued their war against the United States for one hundred days after its issuance, he would then, in virtue of his authority as commander-in-chief of the army and navy, liberate the slaves in all the seceded States. At the expiration of the time, which was on the first of January, 1863, he issued another proclamation, in and by which he did emancipate all the slaves in every State which warred against the United States government.

The blockading of our ports at the commencement of the civil war, and the imposition of an embargo upon our shipping, previous to the last war with England, were both subjects which brought out proclamations from the President who then filled the Executive chair.

THE TOMB OF KOSCIUSKO, WEST POINT.

COMMISSIONERS.

Persons acting under this title are assigned to a variety of duties sometimes permanent and sometimes temporary. In the first place, they act as heads of bureaus in the various departments. These commissioners are permanent officials of the government, established and provided for by law; such are the commissioners of the land office, patent office, pension office, &c.

Another class of commissioners can hardly be considered officers, but rather temporary or special agents. The business to be transacted may be a great distance from the capital, even in a foreign country. In these cases commissioners are appointed to do such business. They have been appointed to negotiate a peace, to make treaties of various kinds between us and other powers, and to negotiate with the Indians for the purchase of their lands. The United States courts appoint them to take bail, or to take testimony to be used on trials, and do various other things necessary in trials and proceedings before them.

Congress frequently appoints commissioners to obtain information, or to investigate some matter on which they expect to legislate. In all cases they must report their proceedings, either to Congress, to the President, or to the head of the department under whose instruction they act. Permanent commissioners report once a year, or oftener if required, that Congress may know the condition of affairs in their respective bureaus. Special commissioners, after they have performed the work assigned, make their report; after which their duties cease and their commission comes to an end.

The lowest grade of diplomatic agents are called commissioners. We are thus represented at the present time in the Republics of Hayti and Liberia.

OFFICIAL REGISTER.

Congress, in 1816, passed an act authorizing and requiring the Secretary of State, once in two years, to print and publish a book called "the official register," in which he was ordered to register the name of every officer and agent of the government, in the civil, military and naval departments, including cadets and midshipmen, together with the compensation received by each; the names of the State and county where born; and the name of the place where employed, whether at home or abroad.

To the list of the persons employed in the Navy Department, the Secretary of the Navy is required to subjoin the names, force and condition of all the ships and vessels belonging to the United States, and when and where built.

This work has been published and distributed, as the law directs, ever since the passage of the act, and is sometimes denomi-

nated "the blue book." It can be found in the Congressional library at Washington, where twenty-five copies of each edition are deposited.

THE STARS AND STRIPES.

A nation's Flag represents its sovereignty. The flag of the United States may well call forth more enthusiastic affection, pride, and hope than any other in the world; for it symbolizes not only home, country, and associations dear to Americans, but the justice, liberty, and right of self government that are dear to all mankind.

Its history is this: Soon after the Declaration of Independence the Continental Congress appointed a committee to confer with Gen. Washington and "design a suitable flag for the nation." After the painful and depressing defeat on Long Island, the retreat through the Jerseys and across the Delaware, when everything seemed lost for the new government, Washington suddenly struck the vigorous blows at Trenton and Princeton that confounded the enemy and drove him back to Staten Island. Congress and the country were cheered with a hope and a resolution that never afterward failed them; for in the next campaign occured the capture of Burgoyne, followed by the treaty with France; and the close of the war in our favor was henceforth only a question of time.

In the month of May or early June, 1777, following the staggering blow Washington had given the British army in Jersey, the committee referred to above, and Washington, completed the design for a flag. This was accomplished and the first flag made at the house of a Mrs. Ross, in Arch St., Philadelphia. The house is still standing—No. 239. She had a shop where she followed the "upholder" trade, as it was then called—the same as our upholstering. One day the Commander-in-chief, Hon. Geo. Ross, a relative of hers, and certain members of Congress, called on her, with a design for a flag—thirteen red and white stripes, alternate with thirteen six pointed stars—and requested her to make the flag. She consented, but suggested that the stars would be more symmetrical and more pleasing to the eye if made with five points, and folded a sheet of paper and produced the pattern by a single cut. This was approved and she finished a flag the next day. Mrs. Ross was given the position of manufacturer of flags for the government, which descended to her children.

In 1794 this flag was changed, though its chief features were retained. Congress then ordered that the flag should consist of fifteen stripes, alternate red and white, and fifteen stars, white on a blue field. There were then fifteen States. The stars and stripes were equal, and a stripe and star were added with the

advent of each new State. This was changed in 1818, as the States increased and the flag threatened to become too large, by reducing the stripes to thirteen, representing the original Union, and the stars were made equal to the number of States. No change has since been made except to add a star whenever the union increased by the admission of a State.

THE GOVERNMENT AND RELIGION.

The founders of our government were wise enough to leave the people to arrange religious questions according to their pleasure. They were not unbelievers in religion, but thought, as most of our citizens now think, that entire liberty should be left to all to act in religious matters as they felt able and inclined. All religious systems are equally tolerated—no government support is given specially to any. Some people do not approve of religious oaths (an affirmation in the name of God, or calling God to witness that what is said is true,) and from such persons a solemn affirmation or statement, answers the purposes of the law.

The Constitution prohibits Congress from making laws respecting the establishment of a State religion, or interfering with the free exercise of it, and declares that "no religious test shall ever be required, as a qualification to any office or public trust, under the United States." The President recommends a National thanksgiving to God once a year, for the blessings we enjoy, and sometimes proclaims a day of fasting and prayer. It shows all due respect to the religious beliefs among the people, but leaves all free to practice any form of it, or to reject them all.

CHAPLAINS.

From respect to the religious habits of the people, chaplains are appointed to supply such religious instruction and services in the army and navy as might be felt desirable by those concerned. Those in the army receive the same pay and emoluments as a major of the infantry; or this was the compensation allowed by act of Congress in 1812. But by an act of 1862, it was fixed at $100 per month, and two rations per day, for those in the army or hospitals. By the act of 1812, one chaplain was allowed to every brigade; but by an act of 1861 (during the civil war) one for every regiment was allowed.

Navy chaplains, in 1835, received $1,200 per year. But in 1860 this was raised to a lieutenant's pay; and this in 1862 was $1,800 per annum.

Chaplains in Congress receive $750 per annum.

The United States also employ a chaplain in the military academy at West Point.

COMPROMISES.

Webster defines a compromise to be an agreement between parties in controversy to settle their difference by mutual concessions.

COMPROMISE OF THE CONSTITUTION.

This compromise consisted of concessions made by each section. The North conceded the return of fugitives from their Southern masters, when escaped to the north, and an enumeration of three-fifths of the slave population in computing the representation in Congress. The South conceded the final close of the Slave Trade at a given time (1808). Outside of the Constitution it, at the same time, conceded the "Ordinance of 1787," by which Slavery was excluded from territory north of the Ohio river. Thus the North and South divided the country between them.

THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE.

The arrangement of the Slavery question, so termed, was made in 1820, and took effect as to the State of Missouri in 1821. Missouri had included a clause in her Constitution, presented for the approval of Congress, prohibiting slavery. This clause the South demanded should be stricken out. It produced great excitement and hot discussion throughout the country, and seemed to threaten the stability of the Union. Both sections were resolute in maintaining their principle, but both appreciated the necessity of strength in the government and harmony between the sections, and each made a sacrifice for the sake of these. Missouri was required to admit slavery, and the condition was annexed that no more Slave States should be formed north of its southern line. This was a concession trying to both sides. The North became a party to the extension of Slavery, and the South gave definite limits to her power of expansion. Each, however, gained something · the South a State above the limits before virtually fixed, and the North a definite and final limit to the extension of a hated institution. This was quite generally satisfactory, and for many years set that question at rest.

The discovery of gold in California filled it with inhabitants so soon, and these so largely from the free States, that in two years from its definite acquisition it petitioned for admission into the Union with a clause in its Constitution prohibiting Slavery. This was very exasperating to the South, and after a long and violent contest could be carried by the North only by the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law—a re-enactment of a part of the Compromise of the Constitution with provisions so vigorous and effective, could they have been enforced, as to be, in the highest degree, offensive to a considerable part of the northern people. Utah was given a Territorial government as a concession to the South, and the Slave Trade was abolished in the District of Columbia as her corres-

ponding concession to the North. These were the four compromise measures of 1850, the result of a discussion lasting nearly a year, engendering great bitterness on both sides, and failing to satisfy either.

The attempt to enforce the Fugitive Slave Law proved ineffectual, in the end; the rooted aversion of the Northern people to Slavery, kept in abeyance before by less offensive compromises, being fully aroused. This produced in the Southern people a bitter indignation as showing a disposition to rebel against a constitutional provision in their favor. They procured, in 1854, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise in the famous "Kansas and Nebraska Bill," and sought to introduce Slavery into Kansas. A civil war in that Territory followed.

TREASON.

The Constitution defines treason to be "levying war against the United States, or adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort;" so that the highest or capital crime alone may be pursued with its penalties.

An act of Congress passed April 30th, 1790, orders that the convicted offender shall be hung.

By another act passed 17th July, 1862, it was made discretionary with the court trying the case to put the offender to death, or to imprison him for not less than five years, and to fine him for a sum not less than ten thousand dollars.

None but a person owing allegiance to the United States can commit treason against them.

"Misprison of treason" is the concealment of it by a person who knows it has been committed. This also is a grave offense, and is punishable by a seven years' imprisonment, and a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

Any person tried for treason, must be indicted by a grand jury, and tried by petit jury in the Circuit Court of the United States within three years after the crime has been committed; otherwise it is barred by limitation—or, in other words, outlawed.

NATIONAL BANKING.

The present banking system was established by an act of Congress in 1863. These Banks are managed by private parties and corporations, apart from the government, but under a certain degree of supervision, and by its authority. By the act referred to any number of persons not less than five may associate themselves together for the purpose of banking, by compliance with the following conditions:

First: They must, under their hands and seals, make a certificate which shall specify—

The name assumed by such association.

The place where its business is to be conducted.

The amount of its capital stock (which cannot be less than $50,000), and the number of its shares.

The names of its shareholders, and the number of shares held by each.

The time when such association shall commence business.

A declaration that said certificate is made to enable such persons to avail themselves of the advantages of this act.

This certificate must be properly acknowledged before some competent person, and must be sent to the comptroller of the currency in the Treasury Department, to be recorded and kept by him. When this, and all other acts which the law requires, has been done by the association, the comptroller of the currency gives them a certificate under his hand and official seal, to that effect, and that they are authorized to commence business. This constitutes the association a corporation. They have the right to make and use a common seal, and have all the rights, and are liable to all the responsibilities of ordinary legalized corporations; and may exist not to exceed twenty years from the passage of this act. Every shareholder is made personally liable for the debts of the association or bank, to the amount of the par value of his stock.

In order to secure the holders of bills issued by these banks, they must deposit with the Treasurer of the United States, United States bonds bearing interest to an amount not less than one-third of the capital stock paid in. These bonds are safely kept by the Treasurer. The comptroller of the currency then issues to the bank an amount of bank notes equal to the amount of bonds thus deposited, less ten per cent. In case the bank should fail to redeem its circulating bills, its bonds are sold, and with the proceeds the comptroller of the currency redeems them, or orders them to be paid at the United States Treasury. The bonds held by the Treasurer as security for the redemption of the bills issued by the association, must be transferred to him in trust; thus giving him entire control of them in case it becomes necessary to sell them in order to redeem the bills of any association which may have failed to pay them on demand.

This act has brought a great number of banks into existence, besides organizing most of the banks formerly existing under State laws under this system; so that we have a nearly uniform system of banking all over the United States. The bills of these banks pass in any part of the country, which was not often the case formerly. In case the bank should be mismanaged, or fail to pay for any cause, there is ample security for their redemption deposited in the United States treasury, where they will be paid on presentation.

The bill-holder is also better protected against counterfeits than he was under the old system; for all the bills issued by these associations are engraved by the government, and the plates and dies on which they are printed are kept by the comptroller of the currency in the Treasury Department. The engraving is done in the best possible manner, and it is exceedingly difficult to counterfeit them. Besides this, they all have the imprint of the seal of the Treasury on their face, and are numbered and countersigned by the treasurer and register. With all these guards and precautions, we have the best paper currency ever used since the establishment of the government.

This act necessarily threw upon the Treasury Department a great increase of labor, and in order to provide for it a separate bureau was created, which is denominated the bureau of currency, the chief officer of which is called the comptroller of currency. He acts under the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury. This bureau is charged with the execution of this and all other laws that may be passed by Congress respecting the national currency. The comptroller of the currency is appointed by the President and Senate, has a deputy, receives a salary of $5,000 per year, holds his office five years, has an official seal, gives bonds to the amount of $100,000, and takes and subscribes the oath of office prescribed by the Constitution and the laws. His duties are numerous and very responsible, he having hundreds of millions under his care.

The term national banks, given to these institutions, and national currency to the bills they issue, were given from the fact that they were organized by an act of Congress, and that the security for the redemption of their bills consists exclusively of national bonds; no other securities will be taken.

THE NATIONAL DEBT,

In Each Year, from 1791 to 1875.

1791	75,463,476.52	1812	45,209,737.90	1833	7,001,032.88
1792	77,227,924.66	1813	55,962,827.57	1834	4,760,081.08
1793	80,352,634.04	1814	81,487,846.24	1835	351,289.05
1794	78,427,404.77	1815	99,833,660.15	1836	291,089.05
1795	80,747,587.38	1816	127,334,933.74	1837	1,878,223.55
1796	83,762,172.07	1817	123,491,965.16	1838	4,857,660.46
1797	82,064,479.33	1818	103,466,633.83	1839	11,983,737.53
1798	79,228,529.12	1819	95,529,648.28	1840	5,125,077.63
1799	78,408,669.77	1820	91,015,566.15	1841	6,737,398.00
1800	82,976,294.35	1821	89,987,427.66	1842	15,028,486.37
1801	83,038,050.80	1822	93 546,676.98	1843	27,203,450.69
1802	80,712,632.25	1823	90,875,877.28	1844	24,748.188.23
1803	77,054,686.30	1824	90,269,777.77	1845	17,093,794.80
1804	86,427,120.88	1825	83,788,432,71	1846	16,750,926.23
1805	82,312,150.50	1826	81,054,059.99	1847	38,956,623.38
1806	75.723,270.66	1827	73,987,357.20	1848	48,526,379.37
1807	69.218.398.64	1828	67,475,043.87	1849	64,704,693.71
1808	65,196,317.97	1829	58,421,413.67	1850	64,228,238.37
1809	57,023,192.09	1830	48,565,406.50	1851	62,560,395.26
1810	53,173,217,52	1831	39,123,191.68	1852	65,131,692.13
1811	48,005,587.76	1832	24,322,235.18	1853	67.340,628 78

1854.....47,242,206.05	1861.....90,867,828.68	1868.....2,143,753,566.38
1855.....39,969,731.05	1862.....514,211,371.92	1869.....2,652,533,662.28
1836.....30,963,909.64	1863.....1,098,793,181.37	1870.....2,509,270,608.00
1857.....29,060,386.90	1864.....1,740,690,489.49	1871.....2,303,573,543.00
1858.....44,910,777 66	1865.....2,682,593,026.53	1872.....2,197,743,440.72
1859.....58,754,699.33	1866.....2,783,425,879.21	1873.....2,153,489,155.96
1860.....64,769,703 08	1867.....2,692,199,215.12	1874.....2,152,690,728.62

Dec. 1st, 1875, total debt less cash in Treasury, $2,117,917,132.

UNITED STATES BONDS.

SIXES OF 1861.—Dated 1861, and redeemable in twenty years from January 1st and July 1st of that year. Interest six per cent. in gold, payable semi-annually—January 1st and July 1st. These Bonds were issued in three series: Under Act February 8th, 1861, $18,415,000; dated variously in 1861. Under Acts July 17th and August 5th, 1861, $50,000,000; dated November 16th, 1861. Under Acts July 17th and August 5th, 1861, in exchange for 7-30's, $139,317,150; dated November 16th, 1861. Under Act March 3d, 1863, and principal made especially payable in gold coin, $75,000,000; dated June 15th, 1864. Total issue, $282,732,150.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1862.—Commonly termed *Old* Five-Twenties, dated May 1st, 1862. Redeemable after five years, and payable in twenty years from date. Interest six per cent. in gold, payable the first of May and November. Issued under Act February 25th, 1862, $514,771,600.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1864.—Dated November 1st, 1864. Redeemable after five, and payable in twenty years. Interest, six per cent. in gold, payable 1st of May and November. Issued under Act March 3d, 1864 (principal specified as payable in gold), $3,882,500. Issued under Act June 30th, 1864, $125,561,300. Total issue, $129,443,800.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1865.—Dated July 1st, 1865. Interest six per cent. in gold, payable January and July. They are redeemable in five years, and payable in twenty years. Issued under Act March 3d, 1865, in exchange for 7-30 notes converted, and amount, August 1st 1868, to $372,346,350.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1865.—Dated November 1st, 1865. Redeemable after five, and payable in twenty years. Interest, six per cent. in gold, payable 1st of May and November. Issued under Act March 3d, 1865, $197,777,250.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1867.—Dated July 1st, 1867. Redeemable in five, and payable in twenty years. Interest, six per cent. in gold, payable 1st of January and July. Issued under Act March 3, 1865, in exchange for 7-30 notes, and amount, August 1st, 1868, to $371,346,350.

FIVE-TWENTIES OF 1868.—Dated July 1st, 1868. Redeemable in five, and payable in twenty years. Interest, six per cent. in gold, payable 1st of January and July. Issued under Act March 3d, 1865, in exchange for 7-30 notes, and amount, August 1st, 1868, to $39,000,000.

MT. VERNON, THE HOME OF WASHINGTON.

MADE TO COMMEMORATE THE EVACUATION OF BOSTON BY THE BRITISH.

TEN-FORTIES.—Dated March 1st, 1864. Redeemable in ten and payable in forty years. Interest, five per cent. in gold, payable on the 1st of March and September on all Registered Bonds, and on all Coupon Bonds of the denomination of $500 and $1,000. On the $50 and $100 Bonds, interest is paid annually, March 1st. Issued under Act March 3d, 1863, and Supplement, March 3d, 1864; principal, payable in gold, $194,291,500.

FIVES OF 1870.—Redeemable at the pleasure of the United States, after May 1, 1881, in gold. Interest, five per cent. in gold, payable quarterly—February, May, August, and November 1st. Exempt from all taxation. Issued under Acts of July 14th, 1870, and January 20th, 1871. Amount, $200,000,000.

U. S. PACIFIC RAILROAD CURRENCY SIXES.—Dated January 16th, 1865, and variously thereafter. These Bonds are issued by the Government, under Acts July 1st, 1862, and July 2d, 1864, to companies receiving their charter from Congress, which gives them the right to construct railroads to and from the Pacific Coast and on the completion of each twenty miles of track, to receive at the rate of $16,000, $22,000 or $48,000 per mile, according to the difficulty of constructing the same. They are payable thirty years from date of issue, and are registered in Bonds of $1,000, $5,000, and $10,000. Amount issued to September 1st, 1870, $64,-618,832. All of the Bonds are issued "Coupon" or "Registered." Coupon Bonds can be changed into Registered Bonds, but Registered Bonds cannot be changed Coupons. Coupon Bonds are in denominations of $50, $100, $500, and $1,000: the Registered Bonds the same, with addition of $5,000 and $10,000.

STATISTICAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

POPULATION.

The total population of the United States, according to the ninth census (1870), is 38,853,217, and leaving out the Indian tribes, 38,555,983. There are but four of the great empires of the world exceeding this in number of inhabitants, to-wit: 1. The Chinese Empire, 477,500,000 inhabitants. 2. The British Empire, 174,200,000 inhabitants. 3. The Russian Empire, 75,500,060 inhabitants. 4. The German Empire, 40,200,000 inhabitants. France and Austria have each about 36,000,000 inhabitants, and are next to the United States in population. But in rapid increase of population our country surpasses all others, and must hold for many decades the foremost rank, as there is none that approaches it in natural wealth and resources. The following table is based upon the official reports of the decennial census:

Year.	Population.	Increase in 10 years. per cent.
1790	3,929,214	
1800	5,308,483	35.02
1810	7,238,881	36.45
1820	9,633,822	33.13
1830	12,866,020	33.49
1840	17,069,453	32.68
1850	23,191,876	35.87
1860	31,443,321	35.59
1870	38,555,983	22.64

According to the tables submitted to the Statistical Congress, at Berlin, in 1863:

The United States increased in	60	years	(1800–1860)	593	per cent.
England and Wales	60	"	(1801–1861)	121	"
Russia	45	"	(1816–1861)	79	"
France	60	"	(1801–1861)	37	"

The efficient causes of progress of population are annexation, immigration, and natural increase (the excess of births over deaths). The first of these factors has contributed but little. Louisiana, when purchased, had 77,000 inhabitants; Florida,

about 10,000; California and New Mexico, about 60,000; Texas and Oregon mainly brought back into the Union citizens who had emigrated thither but a short time before. Of far greater importance has been and will certainly be hereafter, the second factor, *Immigration*, which, though partially arrested by rhe civil war, has expanded to the largest dimensions since the return of peace. Moreover, the character of the immigrants has materially improved, as the intelligent and moneyed classes of Europe have become more interested in our extraordinary resources. America is no longer looked upon in foreign countries as a refuge for oppressed labor, but rather as a field for commercial and industrial enterprises, promising greater results than the combination of capital and labor can realize elsewhere.

Nearly 10,000,000 of our population are foreigners or descendants of foreigners. It has been estimated that the population in 1850 would have been about 22,000,000 if all immigration had been arrested at the time of the Declaration of Independence. The population of the colonies at the commencement of the Revolutionary war was probably not far from 3,000,000; and the arrival of immigrants, previous to the enactment of the passenger act of March 2, 1819, amounted to about 250,000. Since that period the stream of immigration has steadily increased. The total number of immigrants who arrived between Oct. 1, 1819, and December 31, 1870, was 7,553,865. Including the 250,000 already here before October, 1819, the total number of aliens permanently added to our population by direct immigration since the establishment of the government will reach 7,803,765.

It is obvious that this large influx of labor, partly skilled, partly unskilled, adds a large amount to the total wealth of the nation, however difficult it may be to estimate this value in dollars and cents. Mr. Fr. Kapp, member of the German Parliament, assumes the average value of each immigrant to be $1,125. Mr. Edward Young, the able chief of the Bureau of Statistics, deems $1,000 as somewhat too large. The question is yet unanswered; but if we accept $800 as being about the value of an immigrant, inclusive of the average amount in cash he brings with him, then the addition to the wealth of the country by immigration to 1871 reaches the stupendous sum of $6,243,092,000.

The increase in the different divisions of the country has been very unequal. It has exceeded 100 per cent. in some of the new states and territories—Nevada, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Dakota, Utah and Washington. It has been less than 100 per cent. and more than 50, in Iowa, Michigan, Oregon and the District of Columbia. The increase has been still less in those older states which have attained a comparatively high degree of development, and possess a dense population, *i. e.*, a large number of inhabitants to each square mile of area, as Maryland, New Jersey,

New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia and others. The increase in the former slave states has been small, averaging but 17 per cent. Only four of them---Florida, Louisiana, Missouri and Texas---have grown more than 30 per cent., as they offered extraordinary inducements to immigrants, in the richness of their natural resources and the sparsity of their populations. The rate of increase of the New England States has been less than that of the United States at large. Maine and New Hampshire have slightly fallen off in population, although they have only eighteen and thirty-five inhabitants, respectively, to the square mile. Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island are the most densely inhabited portions of the country, having, respectively, 182, 114, and 167 inhabitants to the square mile; but their increase has been small, averaging but 18 per cent.

Four of the five races into which the human family is ordinarily divided, are represented in the population of the United States---the Indian, the Ethiopian, the Mongolian and the Caucasian races, or classified by color, the red, black and yellow, and the white races. The total number of *Indians* was, according to the last census, 383,712. Of these 25,731 were living as broken bands in many of the states, sustaining no tribal relations; 96,366 were upon government reservations and under agencies; and 234,740 roamed as nomads over the thinly settled parts of the West. The *Ethiopians* or *negroes* were imported into the colonies as slaves, previous to the Declaration of Independence. In 1790 they numbered 757,343 souls, 56,446 of whom were then free. In 1850 they had increased to 3,638,762, inclusive of the various shades of colored persons, and ten years later, to 4,441,756, of whom 487,996 were free, and 3,953,700 slaves. The last census gives their number as 4,868,387. The rate of increase from 1850 to 1860 was 22.35 per cent., but from 1860 to 1870, only 9.6 per cent., while the population of the country at large increased during the same decades, 35.39 and 22.64 per cent. respectively.

In 1870 the proportion of the colored to the whole population was 14½ to 100, a ratio by no means alarming in a political point of view. But it greatly varies in the different states; in South Carolina and Mississippi the number of the colored people considerably exceeds that of the whites; in all others the whites predominate.

The *Mongolian* race is represented by Chinese and a few Japanese. The number of the latter is, indeed, so small, that they are not separately enumerated in the census. In 1860 there were 35,565 Chinese in California only. At present they are found in twenty-three states. Asiatic immigration, says Mr. Edward Young, has not yet reached such proportions as to excite alarm in the most apprehensive, and falls far short of what has been represented, never having reached in any single year the number

of 15,000; forming only four per cent. of our total immigration A peculiarity of the Chinese immigration is the small number of females, not exceeding seven per cent. of the whole, a fact which seems to preclude a large increase of the pure race.

The bulk of our population is of the Caucasian or white race, numbering 33,580,857, or 86.45 per cent. of the grand total of inhabitants, and belongs to that race-branch which ethnologists have called the Aryan, Indo-European, or Indo-Germanic.

The *Hebrews* or *Jews* constitute the only Semitic element in our population, but their numbers cannot be ascertained, as they are not enumerated in any official count or report. If, however, their number is to the entire population of the country as is the number of seats in the synagogues to the total of church accommodations in the country, then the Jews may be estimated to exceed 75,000 and to fall below 100,000.

Of the Aryan race-branch the Germanic and Celtic nationalities have almost alone contributed to the making of the American nation.

The *English* or *Anglo-Saxon* were the first settlers on our shores, and if not now the most numerous, have planted imperishably their language, institutions, and laws upon our soil. The new nation which is being formed out of the various elements will always exhibit the impress of their peculiar social and political characteristics.

Germans came over and settled in this country at a very early day, and their influx has, with unimportant intermission, (*i. e.*, for instance, during the Napoleonic wars) steadily continued, a large proportion going to the rural districts and developing the agricultural resources. In Pennsylvania and the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia there are districts whose inhabitants are mainly descendants of the early German settlers from the Palatinate, and still speak a German dialect. The *Swedes* colonized the Western shores of Delaware River, and the *Dutch* or *Hollanders* the Southern part of the state of New York.

The *Irish* represent the Celtic element in our population. From 1691 to 1745 the influx of this element amounted to 263,000 souls (according to Thomas Newenham's "Statisical and Historical Inquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of Ireland.") The 165,000 persons who immigrated from 1790 to 1814 were mainly Irish (probably nine-tenths). They settle in large cities and towns or in the manufacturing districts. The majority of laborers in the industrial establishments of New England, and on railroads and canals, are Irish, and not many go into the rural districts.

The *Romanic* nations of Europe have also sent their quota across the Atlantic, although a small one. French Huguenots, persecuted at home for their religion, settled in South Carolina.

Missouri and Louisiana, when ceded to the United States, were mostly inhabited by Frenchmen; and the annexation of Florida, Texas, California and New Mexico, added a few thousand Spaniards and Spanish half-breeds to our population.

The *Slavonic* nations have contributed to our increase still less than the Romanic. The few Russians, Poles, and others, who land on our shores are soon lost in the great mass.

The question as to the proportion in which the nationalities above mentioned are represented to-day among the American people is one of considerable ethnographic interest. From the nature of the inquiry a rough estimate only can be given. We take as the basis the census for 1820, previous to which the nationality of immigrants was not specified. The white population in that year was 7,862,166. Since then the direct white immigration has been about 7,300,000. In 1870, the white population had increased to 33,586,989.

If the sum of the first two numbers is deducted from the last, the remainder (about 17,930,000,) is that part of the increase which is owing to the excess of births over deaths. If we then distribute the white population of 1820, and the direct white immigration since 1820, among the nationalities above mentioned, and add to each its proportionate share of the increase due to the excess of births over deaths (17,930,000,) we shall obtain approximately the numerical strength of each nationality in the American people.

The following results in round numbers are based upon this estimate and calculation, and though not claiming for them a great degree of accuracy, we think that they are not very far from the truth:

1. Anglo-Saxons	8,340,000	inhabitants
2. Germans—including Prussians, Austrians and Swiss	8,930,000	"
3. Other Germanic Nations, as Dutch and Scandinavians	728,000	"
Germanic Nations	17,998,000	"
4. Celts—principally Irish	10,255,000	"
5. Romanic Nations, as French, Spaniards, Portuguese and Italians	1,016,000	"
6. All other nationalities	4,326,000	"
Total white inhabitants in 1870	33,595,000	

The number of natives descended purely from one or the other stock is still large. Intermarriages between persons of different nationalities are, however, quite common. Were the fusion of these diverse elements complete, then, of 100 drops of American blood, 25 would be Anglo-Saxon, 27 German, 2 Dutch or Scandinavian, 30½ Celtic, 3 Romanic, and 12½ uncertain.

CITIES.

The growth of the cities has been far more rapid than that of the open country. Thus the city of New York increased during the last decade 19 per cent.; New Haven, Conn., 29 per cent.;

Boston, 41 per cent.; Portland, Me., 19 per cent.; Baltimore, 26 per cent.; Richmond, Va., 34 per cent.; ratios which are far in advance of their respective states. Philadelphia with 19 per cent. alone shows a smaller growth than its state with 21 per cent. Jersey City has made a progress (183 per cent.) even more rapid, than the most prosperous cities west of the Alleghanies. Pittsburgh increased 75 per cent.; Buffalo, 45; Cleveland, 114; Detroit, 74; Chicago, 166; Milwaukee, 58; St. Louis, 93; Cincinnati, 35; Indianapolis, 159; Louisville, 48; and San Francisco, 63. The Southern cities advance less rapidly New Orleans shows an increase of 39 per cent. and Mobile of only 9. The most remarkable growth apparently was that of Scranton, Pa., which increased 261 per cent.

OCCUPATIONS AND BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY.

The total number of persons employed in gainful and reputable occupations, for which they receive compensation in the shape of wages or salary, or from which they derive products of a merchantable character, was, in 1870, 12,505,923, of which 10,669,635 were males, and 1,836,288 females. In a majority of the states the number of those who had no recognized occupations was quite large; but of the 10,429,150 males between the ages of 16 and 59 inclusive, 9,486,734 were accounted for in the tables of the census, while of 989,516 above the age of 60, 634,837 were accounted for. The difference in the former period (*i. e*, 16 to 59) is substantially made up, first, by the number of students pursuing courses of instruction; second, by the number of persons afflicted with bodily or mental infirmities disqualifying them from participating in the industry of the country; third, by the members of the pauper and criminal classes.

The total number of females above the age of 16, not accounted for in the census, was in the neighborhood of 9,100,000. But of these probably 7,400,000 were occupied in "keeping house," others attended school, and the remainder was made up of various classes, such as grown up daughters living at home, widowed mothers supported by their children, ladies living upon the income of accumulated property, as well as paupers, vagrants, and criminals.

The cenus report classifies all the various occupations under four heads:

1. *Agriculture*, in which were employed a grand total of 5,922,471 persons. Of these 2,977,711 were farmers and planters, 2,885,996 agricultural laborers, 31,435 gardeners and nursery-men, 6,588 stock raisers, and 5,590 stock herders.

2. Under the head of *Professional and Personal Services*, the census enumerates 72 distinct occupations, with 2,184,793 persons.

Laborers, not specified, greatly predominated, numbering 1,031,666. Of the 975,734 domestic servants, 108,380 were males, and

867,354 females. Thus only 1 out of every 8.7 of the 7,579,863 families enjoyed the assistance of female help. The majority of the servants were natives of the United States, viz: 728,180; 145,956 were natives of Ireland; 42,866, of Germany, 14,878, of British America; 12,531, of England; and 5,420, of China. Barbers and hair dressers numbered 23,935; boarding and lodging-house keepers, 12,785; hotel-keepers, 26,394; restaurant keepers, 35,185; clerks in hotels and restaurants, 5,245; other employees in these establishments, 23,438; clerks and employees in government offices, 23,079; launderers and laundresses, 60,906. The learned professions were thus repsented; authors and lecturers, 458; chemists, 608; metallurgists, 164; clergymen, 43,874; dentists, 7,839; civil engineers 4,703; journalists, 5,286; land surveyors, 2,671; lawyers, 40,736; naturalists, 287; physicians and surgeons, 62,383; and veterinary surgeons, 1,169.

The different branches of the fine arts included 2,017 architects, 934 designers and draftsmen, 775 painters, 250 sculptors, and 2,948 artists not specified. There were 136,570 teachers, 9,491 of whom taught music, 108 drawing and painting, and 149 dancing.

3. The title *Trade and Transportation* includes the commercial classes, numbering 1,191,238 persons, of whom, 14,362 were bankers and brokers, employing 995,598 officials, clerks, and others; the railroads absorbed the activity and services of 163,303 persons; the telegraphs of 8,579; and the express companies, of 9,396. The traders and dealers of all classes numbered 1,262,268, who employed 222,504 clerks, 31,177 book-keepers and accountants, 7,262 commercial travelers, and 14,203 salesmen or saleswomen. The sailors numbered 56,663; the boatmen and watermen, 21,332; the canalmen, 7,338; steamboatmen and women, 7,975; and the shippers and freighters, 3,567.

4. In the *Manufactures, and Mechanical and Mining Industries*, there were engaged 2,707,421 persons, of whom 344,596 were carpenters, 171,217, boot and shoemakers, 161,820 tailors and seamstresses, 152,107 miners, 141,774 blacksmiths, 111,106 cotton-mill operatives, 58,836 woolen-mill operatives, 41,619 mill and factory operatives not specified, 80,710 masons, 85,123 painters and varnishers, 39,860 printers, and 42,877 manufactures.

AGRICULTURE.

The great majority of the people of the United States are engaged in agriculture, which here as elsewhere forms the basis of national wealth. With happy peculiarities of climate, extent of territory through so many degrees of latitude or isothermal belts, and an immense area of most fertile soil, we enjoy extraordinary advantages for producing agricultural staples in great variety and abundance.

The importance of the agricultural interest is fully recognized

THE TOMB OF WASHINGTON MOUNT VERNON, VA.

by the government and the people. In 1872 the *Department of Agriculture* was established by act of Congress, for the purpose of collecting statistics, introducing from foreign lands seeds of new plants, testing their adaptability to our soil and climate, and disseminating information to the farmers. Agricultural colleges have been established in many of the states, and agricultural periodicals are published in nearly all parts of the country.

But farming is, as yet, a business rather than a profession. Too much land is superficially cultivated and soon exhausted. The very perfection of the labor-saving machines and implements, in which this country surpasses all others, promotes the process of wearing out the surface soil. In all the older states there are large tracts which formerly produced twice as much corn or wheat to the acre as they produce now. It has become doubtful whether farming pays in New England; and the country population there is gradually decreasing. The older tobacco plantations of Maryland and Virginia have been in many instances abandoned, and a large proportion of the southern cotton lands have ceased to yield profitable returns. The yield of wheat fifty years ago in Ohio was 30 bushels to the acre; to-day it is not quite 15. An English traveler was surprised by the extraordinary productiveness of the wheat fields near Albany, N. Y., in 1775, which yielded from 30 to 40 bushels per acre, with inferior cultivation. In 1855 winter wheat yielded 7½ bushels and spring wheat but 5. The present method of farming will probably prevail as long as farmers can go West and obtain fresh land for a comparatively low price. But when the vast amount of virgin soil yet awaiting the arrival of the husbandman shall have been all taken up and made to yield its dormant treasures, lands will necessarily increase in value, thoroughly scientific cultivation will become profitable, and agriculture will rise to the dignity of a learned profession.

According to the last census report, the aggregate area of the farms of the United States comprised 407,735,041 acres, or about 21 per cent. of the entire surface. Of this amount 189,000,000, or somewhat over 9 per cent., were "improved" *i. e.*, cleared land, used for grazing, grass, or tillage, or lying fallow. These figures show what an immense amount of land is yet open to the settler. In 1860, the improved lands comprised 163,000,000 of acres, and in 1850, 113,000,000. The rate of progress will hereafter, probably, not fall short of 4,000,000 of acres per annum. At this rate it will still take about two hundred and fifty years before the cultivable portion of the United States (somewhat more than one-half the entire area) will be improved.

The total area in woodland was 159,310,177 acres, or 39 per cent. of the aggregate of acres in farms. The Southern states are remarkably well wooded; the twelve states from Maryland to Tennessee averaging in woods 52 per cent. of their farm area;

the New England states have 32 per cent. of woods; the Middle states 28 per cent; and the Central states, from West Virginia to Nebraska, 32 per cent. The territories are not rich in woods, except Washington, which has 44 per cent. California has but 4 per cent. of its farm area in woodland; Nebraska, 10; Kansas, 11; Iowa, 16; Illinois, 19; Indiana, 39; Ohio, 31; Kentucky, 48; and West Virginia, 51.

The cash value of farms in 1870 was $9,262,803,861 (against $6,645,045,007, in 1860); and of farm implements, $336,878,429. The wages paid during the year amounted to $310,286,285, and the value of all farm products, including betterments and increase of stock, reached the large sum of $2,447,538,658; in addition to which the orchards produced $47,335,189, and the market gardens, $20,719,229. New York, Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Iowa, and Missouri, rank first in the value of farm products.

The value of animals slaughtered or sold was $398,956,376; of home manufactures, $23,423,332; and of forest products, $36,808,277. If these sums are added to those of the farm, orchard, and garden products, the grand total of agricultural activity amounts to $2,974,781,059, or about $80 for each inhabitant of the country.

The live stock comprised 7,145,370 horses, 1,125,415 asses and mules, 8,935,332 milch cows, 1,319,271 working oxen, 13,566,605 other cattle, 28,477,951 sheep, and 25,134,569 swine. The total value of all live stock was $1,525,276,475.

The census returns of domestic animals include only those on farms. No provision is made for enumeration of horses, cattle, and other animals, kept for work, milk, and fattening, in cities, or those *in transitu* to the feeder and butcher. The statistician or the Department of Agriculture estimates the number of cattle not on farms, in 1870, 4,273,973, or 15 per cent. of the aggregate returned; and the number of horses, 1,547,370, or 18 per cent.

Illinois had the largest number of horses, 853,738, or 34 horses to every 100 inhabitants; then follow Ohio with 609,722, or 23 horses to 100 inhabitants; New York, with 536,861, or 12 horses to 100 inhabitants; and Indiana with 497,883, or 30 horses to 100 inhabitants.

Missouri, Tennessee, Kentucky, Georgia, and Alabama, had the largest number of mules and asses. The Northern states had but few.

The principal sheep-raising states are Ohio (about five million sheep), California (two and two-third millions), New York (over two millions), Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin (from one to two millions each.)

The subjoined table shows to what extent each state and territory participates in the grand sums above given;

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Improved farm Lands, in acres.	Proportion of improved lands to the total area, in per cent.	Cash value of farms in thousands of dollars.	Cash value of live stock in thousands of dollars.	Estimated value of farm productions in thousands of dollars.	Value of animals slaughtered and sold for slaughter, in thousands of dollars.
Alabama	5,062,204	15.6	$ 67,739	$ 26,690	$ 67,522	$ 4,670
Arizona	14,585	.02	161	143	278	9
Arkansas	1,859,821	5.5	40,029	17,223	40,702	3,844
California	6,218,133	5.1	141,240	37,965	49,856	6,112
Colorado	95,594	.14	3,385	2,871	2,335	252
Connecticut	1,640,752	35.	124,241	17,545	26,482	4,882
Dakota	42,645	.04	2,085	780	496	22
Delaware	698,115	51.3	46,712	4,257	8,172	997
District of Columbia	8,266	23.6	3,800	115	320	....
Florida	736,172	1.9	9,947	5,212	8,910	521
Georgia	6,831,856	18.4	94,559	30,156	80,390	6,854
Idaho	26,603	.01	492	521	638	58
Illinois	19,329,952	54.8	920,506	149,757	200,861	56,789
Indiana	10,104,279	46.7	634,804	83,777	122,914	30,247
Iowa	9,396,467	26.6	392,662	82,987	114,386	25,781
Kansas	1,971,003	3.9	90,327	23,173	27,631	4,156
Kentucky	8,103,850	33.6	311,238	66,287	87,477	24,122
Louisiana	2,045,640	7.7	68,245	15,929	52,007	818
Maine	2,917,793	14.6	102,961	23,357	33,470	4,939
Maryland	2,914,007	40.1	170,369	18,434	35,344	4,621
Massachusetts	1,736 221	36.2	116,432	17,049	32,192	4,325
Michigan	5,096,339	14.1	398,240	49,810	81,509	11,712
Minnesota	2,322,102	4.3	97,847	20,119	33,446	3,077
Mississippi	4,209,146	13.9	81,716	29,940	73,138	4,091
Missouri	9,130,615	21.8	392,908	84,285	103,036	23,627
Montana	34,674	.09	729	1,819	1,677	169
Nebraska	647,031	.8	30,242	6,551	8,605	855
Nevada	92,644	.3	1,485	1,445	1,660	104
New Hampshire	2,334,487	39.	80,589	15,246	22,474	3,720
New Jersey	1,976,474	41.2	257,523	21,443	42,725	6,982
New Mexico	143 007	.18	2,260	2,389	1,905	225
New York	15,627,206	48.4	1,272,858	75,883	253,526	28,226
North Carolina	5,258,742	16.2	78,211	21,994	57,846	7,983
Ohio	14,469,133	56.5	1,054,465	120,301	198,257	40,498
Oregon	1,116,290	1.8	22,353	6,829	7,123	1,366
Pennsylvania	11,515,965	39.0	1,043,482	115,647	183,946	28,413
Rhode Island	289,630	43.3	21,574	3,135	4,761	756
South Carolina	3,010,539	13.8	44,809	12,443	41 909	2,507
Tennessee	6,843,278	23.5	218,744	55,084	86,473	15,856
Texas	2,904,836	1.7	60,150	37,425	49,185	4,835
Utah	118,755	.2	2,798	2,150	1,973	172
Vermont	3,073,257	47.3	139,367	23,889	34,647	4,321
Virginia	8,165,040	31.1	213,021	28,188	51,775	8,376
Washington	102,016	.1	3,878	2,103	2,112	292
West Virginia	2,580,254	19.8	101,604	17,175	23,380	4,915
Wisconsin	5,899,243	17.1	300,414	45,311	78,027	11,915
Wyoming	338	....	18	442	43	12

In 1870 there were in the United States 2,659,985 farms, which had an average extent of about 150 acres. Over one-half of the farms covered from 20 to 100 acres. According to the classification of the census report, 0.3 per cent. of all the farms were below 3 acres; 6.4 per cent. had from 3 to 10 acres; 11.1 per cent., from 10 to 20 acres; 31.9 per cent., from 20 to 50 acres; 28.3 per cent., from 50 to 100 acres; 21.2 per cent., from 100 to 500

0.6 per cent., from 500 to 1,000 acres; and but 0.2 per cent. more than 1,000 acres.

The average size of farms has considerably decreased since 1860; except in Wisconsin, where no change has taken place; in Massachusetts, where it has increased from 94 to 103 acres; and in California where it has risen from 466 to 482 acres. In North Carolina it has decreased from 316 to 212 acres; in South Carolina, from 488 to 233; in Mississippi, from 370 to 193; in Texas, from 591 to 301. In the central states the decrease is less marked; and was from 146 to 128 in Illinois; from 114 to 111, in Ohio; from 211 to 158, in Kentucky; and from 165 to 134, in Iowa.

Irrigation.—That portion of the United States which includes the Cordilleras and the Great Plains, suffers, as has been stated, from either scarcity or absence of moisture. Agriculture there will always be impossible, except in favored spots, which admit of irrigation from the rivers and creeks. But even in the most favored states of the Mississippi valley irrigation would be exceedingly profitable. The yield of meadows would thereby be doubled and trebled, and that of the grain fields at least greatly increased.

The great staples of the United States are the cereals—corn wheat, rye, oats, and barley; potatoes, rice, tobacco, cotton, wool,' and dairy products.

Indian Corn, or Maize, is the only cereal indigenous to the American continent, and is the most extensively cultivated food-plant of the United States. It requires great summer heat, and hence our climate is peculiarly adapted to its culture. The northern limit may be represented by the summer isotherm of 65°, which excludes northern Maine, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, the valley of the St. Lawrence, and the larger portion of the Pacific coast. Its yield varies from 30 to 80 bushels to the acre. The total product amounted in 1870 to 760,944,549 bushels. Illinois produced over one-sixth of the whole amount; Iowa, Missouri, and Ohio, each a little over one-twelfth; and then followed Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Wheat requires a cooler climate than corn, and its range extends farther north, but not as far south. It is, on the east of the Rocky Mountains, a reliable crop as far as the Saskatchawan valley, in 54° lat., and on the Pacific coast as high as 60° lat. The average yield, with careful cultivation and good soil, is about 30 bushels to the acre. Forty bushels is considered an extraordinary crop, but in the irrigated region of Utah and Colorado a yield of 60 bushels is not exceptional. In 1870 there were produced in the United States 112,549,733 bushels of spring wheat, and 175,195,893 of winter wheat; together, about 288,000,000 bushels. Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, California, and Illinois

produced the largest quantities of spring wheat; Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, and New York, of winter wheat.

Rye is a much hardier plant than wheat, and is cultivated mostly in the extreme northern or more elevated parts of the country. Its cultivation is much less profitable than that of wheat. The total yield in 1870 was 16,918,795 bushels, of which Pennsylvania, New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Kentucky produced the largest amount.

The cereal, *Oats*, is so well adapted to either cold or warm climates, that it may be cultivated in nearly every portion of our country. It produces from 30 to 80 bushels to the acre. The yield in 1870 was 282,107,157 bushels, which were raised chiefly in the Northern and Middle states, as Illinois, Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, Iowa, Missouri, and Minnesota.

Barley, also, is a product of the north, and is almost exclusively used for the manufacture of malt beer. It yielded in 1870, 29,961,305 bushels, the greater portion of which was produced in California and New York.

The product of the cereals, from 1850 to 1870, was as follows:

	1850.	1860.	1867.	1870.
Corn	592,071,104	838,792,742	768,520,000	760,944,549
Wheat	100,425,944	173,104,924	212,441,400	187,745,626
Rye	14,188,813	21,101,380	23,184,000	16,918,795
Barley	5,162,015	13,826,098	25,727,000	29,761,305
Oats	146,584,179	172,643,185	278,798,000	282,107,157
Buckwheat	8,956,912	17,571,818	21,359,000	9,821,721
Aggregates	867,388,967	1,237,040,147	1,330,029,400	1,287,299,153

The money value of the 1,330,029,400 bushels of cereals produced in 1867 is officially stated by the Department of Agriculture to be $1,248,037,000.

The area of cereals, in acres, is reported by the same department as follows:

	1867.	1870.
Corn	32,520,249	34,091,137
Wheat	18,321,561	19,943,893
Rye	1,689,275	1,069,531
Barley	1,131,217	1,177,666
Oats	10,746,416	8,365,809
Buckwheat	1,327,826	413,915

The large crops of 1870 were produced by the farming population of over thirty-eight millions inhabitants, being at the rate of 33 bushels a head for the whole population. If it is correct to assume that eight bushels of cereals are sufficient to support one person for one year, the United States had a surplus of 25 bushels per inhabitant for exportation, or an aggregate of 1,000 millions of bushels. A very large portion of this surplus, however, was fed to swine and other animals, and reappeared in the form

of animal food, while a not inconsiderable quantity was distilled into whisky and other spirituous liquors, or converted into starch, etc.

The total production of cereals is on an average more than twice as large for each inhabitant of the United States, as it is in Europe. This enormous production is in a great measure owing to the numerous machines for sowing, planting, reaping, threshing, and preparing the grain for market, which are the result of the inventive genius of the American people, saving the labor and taking the place of millions of men, and that, too, at seasons of the year when men in sufficient numbers could not be obtained. The number of reaping machines actively employed in 1866 was estimated by Mr. John Stanton Gould at 210,000, a number which since then must have greatly increased.

Rice is pre-eminently the grain of the subtropical zone. It requires a great deal of moisture, and can be cultivated only on fields which are subjected to inundation, either natural or artificial. Rice culture is described thus: "A sluice is cut through the river banks, and the fields, being first inclosed in a levee, are flooded. The land is plowed and flooded in March, and as soon as the young plants appear, they are submerged in water, so regulated as to keep their heads just above the surface. When the grain has matured, the fields are laid dry, and the crop is gathered. The yield is from 30 to 60 bushels per acre, but under favorable conditions rises as high as 90 bushels." Rice was introduced into Virginia early in the seventeenth century, and fifty years later into the Carolinas. It is also cultivated now along the coasts of Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, and Texas. The total crop in the United States was 80,841,422 pounds, in 1840; 215,312,710, in 1850; 187,167,032, in 1860; 73,635,021, in 1870. The great decrease in its production for the last decade is owing to the civil war. During this war labor was entirely disorganized; flood-gates, drains, canals and barns were destroyed, and when peace returned rice culture had well nigh ceased. In 1860 rice to the value of $2,567,399 was exported; in 1870 the export had fallen to $127,655.

Tobacco is indigenous in America, and was first introduced into Europe by Sir Walter Raleigh. Since then the consumption has enormously increased, so that its culture has extended to every part of the civilized world where the conditions of soil and climate are favorable to its growth. The tobacco crop in the United States for 1840 was 219,163,319 pounds; for 1850, 199,752,646 pounds; in 1860, 434,209,641 pounds; and for 1870, 262,735,341 pounds. Over forty per cent. of this quantity was raised in Kentucky (viz: 105,305,869 pounds). Virginia, Tennessee, Ohio, Maryland, Missouri, and North Corolina produced 44 per cent.; while the remainder was produced chiefly in Con-

necticut, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia.

Sugar-cane (Saccharum officinarum) is a tropical plant, and its cultivation in the United States is almost entirely confined to the Mississippi delta in Louisiana. It is very sensitive to frost, so that, if the juice becomes frozen, the sacharine matter contained therein will not crystalize into sugar. In the West Indies the cane is a perennial plant; in Louisiana the crops are gathered from one planting. The quantity of sugar produced on an acre varies greatly, according to the quality of soil and care of cultivation. The crop of 1860 in the United states yielded 230,982 hogsheads of sugar, of 1,000 lbs. each, and 14,963,996 gallons of molasses; in 1870, 87,043 hogsheads of sugar and 6,593,323 gallons of molasses. During the latter year sugar and molasses were imported to the amount of nearly $72,000,000, being little less than the total value of exports during the same year, of corn, wheat, and flour. It is not likely that the limited area fit for cane culture will ever produce more than a small portion of the amount annually consumed in our country, and hence the introduction of the beet-sugar industry would be of great advantage to our prosperity. That this can be done is shown by actual experiments successfully made in various places.

Sorghum (Sorghum saccharatum) is raised in the Mississippi valley, and yielded in 1870, 16,050,059 gallons of molasses; but only twenty four hogsheads of sugar. The product of maple trees was 28,443,645 pounds of sugar, and 921,057 gallons of molasses.

Cotton is the great staple of the Southern states. Two varieties are cultivated—the upland and the sea-island cotton. The former grows under favorable conditions as far north as the 40th parallel, but as a commercial crop it is limited by a line which coincides with the northern boundary of Mississippi, sweeps around the base of the Appalachians through Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina, and then turns north to Raleigh and southeastern Virginia. Beyond the Mississippi its culture extends up he lower valleys of the Red, Arkansas, and White rivers. The sea-island variety is raised on the low fertile islands of the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Its value is five or six times as great as that of the upland.

In 1792 the question was seriously discussed in England, whether the United States would ever produce one hundred bales of cotton. Subsequently the inventive genius of Eli Whitney conquered for this plant a place among the principal staples of the world, second only to the cereal grasses. His cotton gin, which separates the fibre from the seed, renders it possible to prepare even the largest crops for the loom.

In 1800 the whole product amounted to 100,000 bales of 400

pounds each; in 1824, to 509,158 bales; in 1830, to 976,845 bales; in 1840, to 2,128,880 bales; in 1850, to 2,445,793; and in 1860, to 5,196,940. The war brought this branch of industry almost to a standstill; nor has the recovery been very rapid since. In 1866 the crop was almost 2,000,000 bales; in 1867, 2,500,00 bales; and in 1870, 3,011,990 bales, which were produced chiefly in Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, the Carolinas, and Tennesse. For years to come the production will not, in the opinion of the Commissioner of Agriculture, reach the quantity before the war, and the average value will not exceed 300,000,000 dollars.

The *Potato* is hardly of less importance than corn or wheat. It is a native of America, and has been found growing wild in Chili and Ecuador, but is now cultivated in nearly all parts of the temperate zone. Its climate range is very wide, as it is successfully grown from Alabama and Georgia to the shores of the Great Lakes, and even of Hudson Bay. The average yield is below two hundred bushels to the acre, though crops of four hundred bushels are not rare under favorable conditions of soil and season. In 18ɔYork United States produced 143,337,473 bushels, chiefly in New York Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin.

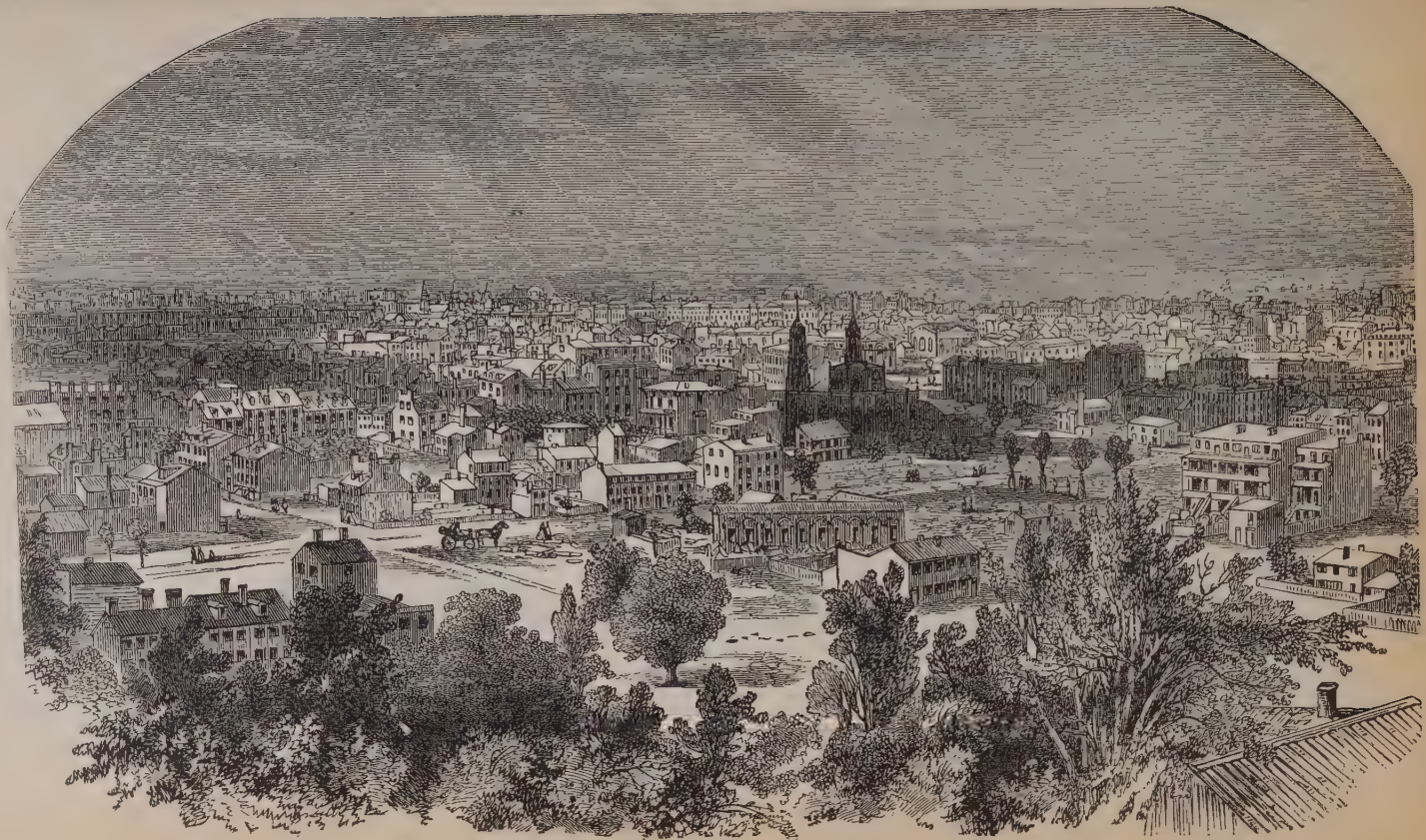
The *Sweet Potato* is a native of the East Indies and tropical America; and is in the United States chiefly cultivated in the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, Arkansas, and Texas. The crop in 1870 was 21,709,824 bushels.

Flax and *Hemp* were cultivated in the United States at an early date; but they are now in great measure superseded by cotton. The hemp crop yielded, in 1870, 12,576 tons, eleven-twelfths of which were produced in Kentucky and Missouri. Flax yielded in the same year 27,133,003 pounds, two-thirds of which were produced in New York.

The *Hay* crop of the country is of great value; but from its weight and bulk it does not form an important item in the list of exports. In 1850 there were produced 23,838,642 tons; in 1860 19,083,896 tons; and in 1870, 27,316,048 tons. The following states produced from one to between five and six millions of tons each: New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Maine, and Vermont. The Southern states receive from the Northern large quantities of hay in the form of compressed bales.

Butter, *Cheese*, and *Milk* are produced chiefly in the Northern states, and of these New York is far in advance of all others. The subjoined table shows the increase of dairy produce during the three last decades:

	1850.	1860.	1870.
Butter	313,345,306	459,681,372	514,092,683 pounds.
Cheese	105,535,893	103,663,927	53,492,153 pounds.
Milk (sold)	----------	----------	235,500,599 gals.



THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

The production of *Wool* has progressed remarkably both as regards quantity and quality. In 1850 the aggregate product was about 52,000,000 pounds; in 1860, 60,000,000; and in 1870, 100,000,000. Ohio, with twenty and a half millions, surpasses all the other states; California follows with eleven millions; New York, with ten millions; Michigan, with eight millions. Vermont excels in producing wool of the very finest quality.

The production of *Silk* is still in its infancy in the United States. The census for 1870 reports 3,937 pounds of silk cocoons, which were produced almost entirely in California. Here the mulberry (morus alby, and M. moretti) grows well in proper situations; but whether the raising of silk-worms can be successfully carried on with the high prices of labor is doubtful.

MANUFACTURES.

The manufacturing industry of the United States progresses at the most extraordinary rate, and keeps pace with the development of the natural resources of the country. New branches are constantly added to those already in successful operation, and nearly all the commodities that enter into the consumption of a civilized nation are produced within our borders.

In 1870 there were 252,148 manufacturing establishments, employing 1,215,711 horse-power of steam engines, 1,130,431 horse-power of water wheels, and 2,053,996 hands, of whom 1,615,508 were males above 16 years of age, and 323,770 females above 15 years of age. The capital invested was $2,118,208,769; the raw material consumed had a value of $2,488,427,242; the wages paid amounted to $775,584,343; and the value of the products was $4,232,325,442. Deducting from this enormous amount the cost of raw materials, the profit realized by the manufacturing industry during the year was $1,743,898,200, or $45.25 per head to the population. The increase of this great branch of industry during the last decade has been unprecedented.

The subjoined table exhibits the industrial statistics; the states being arranged in the order of the value of the annual products:

STATES.	Capital invested	Value of annual products.
New York	$366,994,320	$785,194,651
Pennsylvania	406,321,845	711,894,344
Massachusetts	231,677,862	553,912,568
Ohio	141,923,964	269,713,610
Missouri	80,257,244	206,213,429
Illinois	94,368,057	205,620,672
New Jersey	79,606,719	169,237,732
Connecticut	95,281,278	161,065,474
Michigan	71,712,283	110,394,676
Rhode Island	66,557,322	111,418,354
Indiana	52,055,425	108,617,278
Maine	39,796,190	79,497,521
Wisconsin	41,981,872	77,214,326
Maryland	36,438,729	86,593,613
New Hampshire	36,023,743	71,038,249

STATES.	Capital Invested.	Value of annual Products.
California	39,728,202	66,594,556
Kentucky	29,247,809	54,625,809
Iowa	22,420,183	46,534,322
Virginia	18,455,400	38,364,322
Tennessee	15.599,295	34.361,636
Vermont	20,329,637	32,184,606
Georgia	13,930,125	31,196.115
Louisiana	18,313,974	24,191,905
West Virginia	11,084.520	24,102,201
Minnesota	11,993,729	23,110,720
North Carolina	8,140,473	19.021,327
Delaware	10,839,093	16,206,397
Nevada	5.127,790	15,870,539
Alabama	5 714,032	13,040,644
Kansas	4,319,060	11,775,833
Texas	5,284,110	11,517,302
South Carolina	5,400,418	9,858,981
Dist. of Columbia	5,021,925	9,292,173
Mississippi	4.501,714	8,154.758
Oregon	4,376,849	6,419.756
Nebraska	2,169,963	5,738,512
Florida	1,679,930	4,685,403
Arkansas	1,782,613	4,629,234
Colorado	2,835,605	2.852,820
Washington	1,893,674	2,851,052
Montana	1,794.300	2,494.511
Utah	1,301,898	2,343,019
New Mexico	1,450,695	1,489,868
Idaho	742,390	1,047,624
Wyoming	889,400	765,424
Arizona	150,700	185,410
Dakota	79,200	178,570

The manufacture of *Cotton Goods* is one of the oldest branches of industry in the United States. It properly began with the erection of the first water frame for spinning, in Rhode Island, in 1790; but since then it has increased even more rapidly than the production of the raw material. In 1850 there were employed 3,633,693 spindles; and the total product had a value of $65,501,-687. Ten years later the number of spindles in operation was 5,235,727, and the value of products, $115,681,774. By 1870 the spindles had increased to 7,132,415, and the value of products to $177,489,739; of which Massachusetts produced one-third, or $59,493,155. The states next in rank, as regards the production of cotton goods were Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Maine, and New Jersey. The *Printed Cotton and Woolen Goods* had a value of $54,446,044.

The value of *Woolen Goods* in 1870 was $155,405,358, against $61,894,986 in 1860, and $43,207,545 in 1850. The leading states in this branch of industry were Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Maine. The census report enumerates fifteen different articles manufactured in this country, among which flannels, cloths, cassimeres, blankets, tweeds, and twills occupied the first places.

The manufacture of *Silk Goods* has doubled during the last decade. The census for 1860 returned for the total value of the products, $6,607,771; and the census of 1870, $12,210,662. In the former year the production was limited to sewing silk and

twist: in the latter there were manufactured 1,026,422 yards of silk goods, 3,224,264 yards of silk ribbon, 370,031 pounds of machine silk, and 127,590 pounds of spool silk.

The value of *Hosiery* produced in 1850 was but $1,028,102; in 1860 $7,280,606; and in 1870, $18,411,564. The manufacture of *Carpets* shows also a remarkable increase, in producing the following values: in 1850, $5,401,234; in 1860, $7,857,636; and in 1870, $21,761,573.

Ready-made Clothing is manufactured principally in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania. The value in 1850 was $40,678,802; in 1860, $64,002,965; and in 1870, $147,650,378. In the production of *Cast Iron* were invested in 1870, $67,578,961, and the raw materials consumed, as pig-iron, scrap-iron, and coal, had a value of $48,222,550; while the value of products amounted to $99,843,218, against $36,132,033 in 1860, and $25,108,155 in 1850. New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Massachusetts are the leading states in this branch of industry.

Boots and Shoes were manufactured to the amount of $181,644,090 in 1870, against $91,889,298 in 1860.

The manufacture of *Machinery* has more than doubled within the last decade. In 1870 the products had a value of $138,519,248, and in 1860, $51,887,266. Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, and Massachusetts are the foremost machine-producing states.

Sawed Lumber, including shingles, staves, etc., was produced in 1860 to the value of $96,715,854, and in 1870, of $210,159,327, chiefly in Pennsylvania, New York, Michigan, and Maine.

Tanned Leather manufacture in 1870 had a value of $86,169,883, and the *Curried Leather*, of $54,192,017.

The production of *Brick and Tile* increased from $11,263,147 in 1850 to $29,302,016 in 1870, and is most extensively carried on in New York and Pennsylvania. The *Carpenters and Builders* trade added to the national wealth the large sum of $132,901,432, and the value of *Furniture* was $68,522,221, and of *Glass*, $19,235,862.

No branch of manufacture grows more rapidly than that of *Agricultural Implements*. The products in 1850 had a value of $6,842,611; in 1860, of $17,487,960; and in 1870, of $52,066,875. The census report for the last year enumerates 21,790 corn-planters, 88,740 cultivators, 19,772 fanning mills, 103,646 grain-cradles, 207,310 dozen of hand rakes, 9,150 harrows, 3,566 harvesters, 1,298,260 hay forks, 80,619 horse rakes, 39,486 mowers, 60,388 reapers, 59,645 mowers and reapers combined, 864,947 plows, 2,931 threshers, 881,244 scythes, 6,900 seed sowers, and 1,031 separators.

Chewing, Smoking and Snuffing Tobacco was manufactured of

$38,388,356 in value in 1870; and $21,820,545 in value in 1860; and the number of *Cigars* was 935,868 boxes (of one thousand each), which had a value of $28,299,067.

The value of *Carriages and Wagons* was $65,362,837.

The *Sugar Refineries* turned out products to the amount of $108,941,911, and the *Distilleries of Liquor, Beer Breweries* and *Wine Mannfactories* of $94,133,014.

Paper of all descriptions was produced in 1870 to the value of $48,676,935, against $23,447,302 in 1860, and the value of *printed publications* was in both years respectively $32,674,037 and $31,986,433.

Flour and Meal had increased from $248,580,365 in 1860, to $444,985,143 in 1870.

The *Iron* industry of our country has attained colossal proportions, and is second only to that of England. In 1870 our products were: pig-iron, $60,640,498, iron castings, $76,453,553; iron blooms, $23,389,625; forged and rolled iron, $128,062,627, and nails and spikes, $24,823,996.

MINING.

The United States is probably the richest country in the world, as regards the useful and precious minerals. The Appalachian ranges and the Mississippi valley have immense coal fields, inexhaustible deposits of iron, copper, lead, etc.; while the treasure of precious metals in the region of the Cordilleras is practically without limit. For many years to come the yield of our mines will increase, and mining continue to be a great legitimate branch of industry.

Gold and Silver were formerly obtained to a limited extent in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia; and the value of the gold annually mined averaged about $1,000,000. But with the gold discoveries in California in 1848 the United States took the first rank in the production of this metal, and has maintained it ever since. Mining has been followed in the West by several different methods. Placer mining was the first; an inexpensive process by which the loose gold is washed out of the alluvial soil. Hydraulic mining is placer mining on a gigantic scale; and this is still a profitable pursuit in California. The chief process now is quartz mining, by which the gold is obtained from the hard rocks (mostly quartz) of the auriferous veins. This has become and will remain for many years a legitimate industry, which if skillfully conducted, will yield regular returns, but no sudden fortunes. Hydraulic and quartz mining require large investments of capital, and hence are mostly carried on by chartered companies, whose shares are bought and sold in the market. The history of this

commerce in shares began with the discovery of the rich Washoe mines in Nevada, 1858; particularly the Comstock Lode. The first reports of these discoveries were considered in San Francisco as greatly exaggerated; but when some of the ores on their reduction yielded $3,500 per ton, the value of the deposits became apparent. With great difficulties, and at an enormous expense, machines, crushing works, and food were transported across the Sierra Nevada to Washoe. Several companies were incorporated, and their shares alternately rose and fell.

From 1860 to 1862 many mines were in successful operation, and at the same time explorations were made in various parts of the Great Basin, and new districts were discovered, as Esmeralda, Silver Mountain, Humboldt, Owen River, and others. In 1862 the deposits on the Colorado and Reese rivers were found; and as the news of these discoveries reached San Francisco, the excitement rose and in the spring of 1863 attained its climax. All classes of persons rushed into the wildest speculation. Merchants, physicians, and lawyers hastened to invest their savings in mining shares. Even women participated in the general mania. Then followed a general reaction. It became known that many mines were worthless. All mining shares fell greatly in price, and many lost their value altogether. The shares of the Wide West, Sheba, and Darsey (three of the better mines), for example, which during the excitement had risen to $580, $500, and $800 respectively, fell to $65, $70, and $90. This was a reduction of from $3,500,000 to $393,000 for the aggregate value of the three mines named. The reaction had a favorable influence on the mining industry of the West. Capitalists became more cautious, and before making investments, had the mines thoroughly examined. Those wild speculations which so greatly impaired confidence in this interest are now rare, and fluctuations in stock have gradually naarowed down to a limited range.

The total value of the gold and silver products of the western mines was estimated by J. Ross Brown, in his report to the Secretary of the Treasury, as follows:

	For 20 years, from 1848 to 1868	For the year ending Jan. 1, 1868.
California	$900,000,000	$25,000,000
Nevada	90,000,000	20,000,000
Montana	65,000,000	12,000,000
Idaho	45,000,000	6,500,000
Washington	10,000,000	1,000,000
Oregon	20,000,000	2,000,000
Colorado	25,000,000	2,000,000
New Mexico and Arizona	5,000,000	1,000,000
Bullion, of which no account was taken	50,000,000	5,000,000
Aggregate	$1,210,000,000	$74,500,000

Estimates for the years 1869 and 1872 give the following figures:

	Gold.	Silver.	Total for 1869.	Total for 1872
California	$20,000,000	$----------	$20,000,000	$19,049,089
Nevada	1,500,000	12,500,000	14,000,000	25,584,871
Oregon and Washington	4,000,000	----------	4,000,000	2,131,089
Idaho	6,850,000	150,000	7,000,000	2,514,090
Montana	11,850,000	150,000	12,000,000	4,442,135
Arizona	1,000,000	----------	1,000,000	143,777
New Mexico	500,000	----------	500,000	500,000
Colorado	3,500,000	500,000	4,000,000	3,001,751
Utah	----------	----------	----------	3,521,022
All other sources	1,000,000	----------	1,000,000	--------
	$50,200,000	$13,300,000	$63,500,000	$60,887,82

Quicksilver is found only in the coast ranges of California. The New Almaden Mine produced from January to August, 1867, 31,061 flasks, of 75 Spanish pounds each; the New Idria Mine yielded for the first six months of the same year 5,014 flasks, and the Reddington Mine, 55 miles N. W. of Napa, yielded up to January, 1867, 9,009 flasks, selling for a total of $344,594. The export of quicksilver increased from 9,000 flasks, in 1860, to 42,000 flasks, in 1865.

Copper is mined chiefly in Michigan and Wisconsin, near the coast of Lake Superior. The production in 1860 was 14,432 tons which were worth $3,316,516. The most productive *Lead* mines are in Missouri, Illinois and Iowa. Those of Missouri yield nearly half of the entire product of the country, which was in 1860 about 9,000 tons, of $977,281 in value. *Zinc* and *Nickel* are found only in Pennsylvania, which produced, in 1860, 11,800 tons of zinc, of $72,600 in value.

Coal. The total extent of all productive coal fields thus far known in the United States is 125,000 square miles, and embraces the following areas:

1. The Appalachian coal field, covering parts of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, Eastern Kentucky, Eastern Tennessee, and Alabama. The workable area is estimated at 60,000 square miles. In the center of Pennsylvania, between Pottsville and Wyoming, are the famous anthracite beds, divided into many distinct patches; and in the western part commences the great bituminous coal field, which spreads westward into Ohio and southward to Alabama.

2. Illinois and Missouri coal fields, covering a very considerable part of Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky, and west of the Mississippi river, portions of Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas. Their estimated area is also about 60,000 sq. mls.

3. The Michigan coal fields, situated about the center of the lower peninsula, and embracing an area of 5,000 sq. mls.

4. The Texas coal field, covering the northern and northwestern counties.

5. The Wyoming coal field, of unknown area, which supplies, to a large extent, the Union Pacific railroad.

6. A small coal field of about 1,000 sq. mls in Rhode Island and Massachusetts, between Providence and Worcester.

The amount of anthracite and semi-anthracite coal sent to market in 1870 was, according to the *Miners' Journal*, 15,368,437 tons, an increase over 1869 of 1,716,600 tons. In addition to this there were consumed in the collieries 3,842,876 tons.

The total product of bituminous coal for 1870 was 34,179,778 tons.

Petroleum or coal oil first attracted attention about 15 years ago. In 1857 the first well was sunk near Titusville, on Oil Creek, in Pensnylvania; and at a depth of 70 feet the oil was struck, which yielded a steady flow of 400 gallons per day. In 1860 the number of wells in this region was upward of 2,000,72 of which yielded a daily product of 1,165 barrels, of 33 gallons each. From that time petroleum became one of the great staple articles of commerce, immense quantities being consumed at home or exported to Europe.

The total shipments have been for the last 10 years as follows:

In 1861	1,500,000 gallons.	In 1866	67,430,451 gallons.
In 1862	10,887,701 "	In 1867	67,052,020 "
In 1863	28,250,721 "	In 1868	99,281,750 "
In 1864	31,872,927 "	In 1869	102,748,604 "
In 1865	29,805,523 "	In 1870	141,208,155 "
Total export in 10 years			580,037,852 gallons

At an average of 25 cts. per gallon, including crude and refined, for the whole period, this would give a total valuation of $145,009,474, or at 20 cts, per gallon, $116,007,579, which has been added to the exports of the country from an article unknown to commerce 12 years ago.

The Valley of Oil Creek, a tributary of the Alleghany river, is the principal oil region of the country. It produced in 1869 the enormous number of 398,186 barrels, and in 1870, 471,657 barrels.

COMMERCE.

The commerce of the United States has grown at the most extraordinary rate during the last decade, keeping fully abreast with the increase of population, manufactures, and general wealth of the country.

In the year 1700 the exports of the colonies amounted to £395,000, and the imports to £344,000. In 1792 these values had risen respectively to $20,753,098 and $31,500,000, and in 1807, to $108,343,150 and $138,500,000. Then followed a period of commercial depression, brought about by the "Decrees of Berlin and Milan," and the "Embargo," and up to the year 1839 the exports and imports averaged about $78,000,000. The crisis of 1837 was succeeded by a decline which reached its lowest point in 1842.

Here the figures rise again, slowly at first, more rapidly afterward, with but a brief interruption in consequence of the crisis of 1857.

In 1860 the	exports amounted	to	$400,122,296;	the imports to	$362,163,440.
" 1862	"	"	229,938,975;	"	205,819,823.
" 1864	"	"	340,665,580;	"	328,514,559.
" 1866	"	"	437,641,357;	"	565,426,394.

In the year ending June 30, 1870, the United States imported goods to the value of $541,493,706 and exported goods to the value of $590,078,550. Of this amount the value of domestic exports was $562,518,651, and of foreign exports, $28,459,899.

New York absorbs 56.8 per cent. of the total foreign commerce of the country. Its pre-eminence is owing to the geographical position of the city, her magnificent harbor and her excellent connections with the interior by rail and canal. The Erie Canal, which connects New York with the Great Lakes, is the only water communication which intersects the whole breadth of the Appalachian System from East to West.

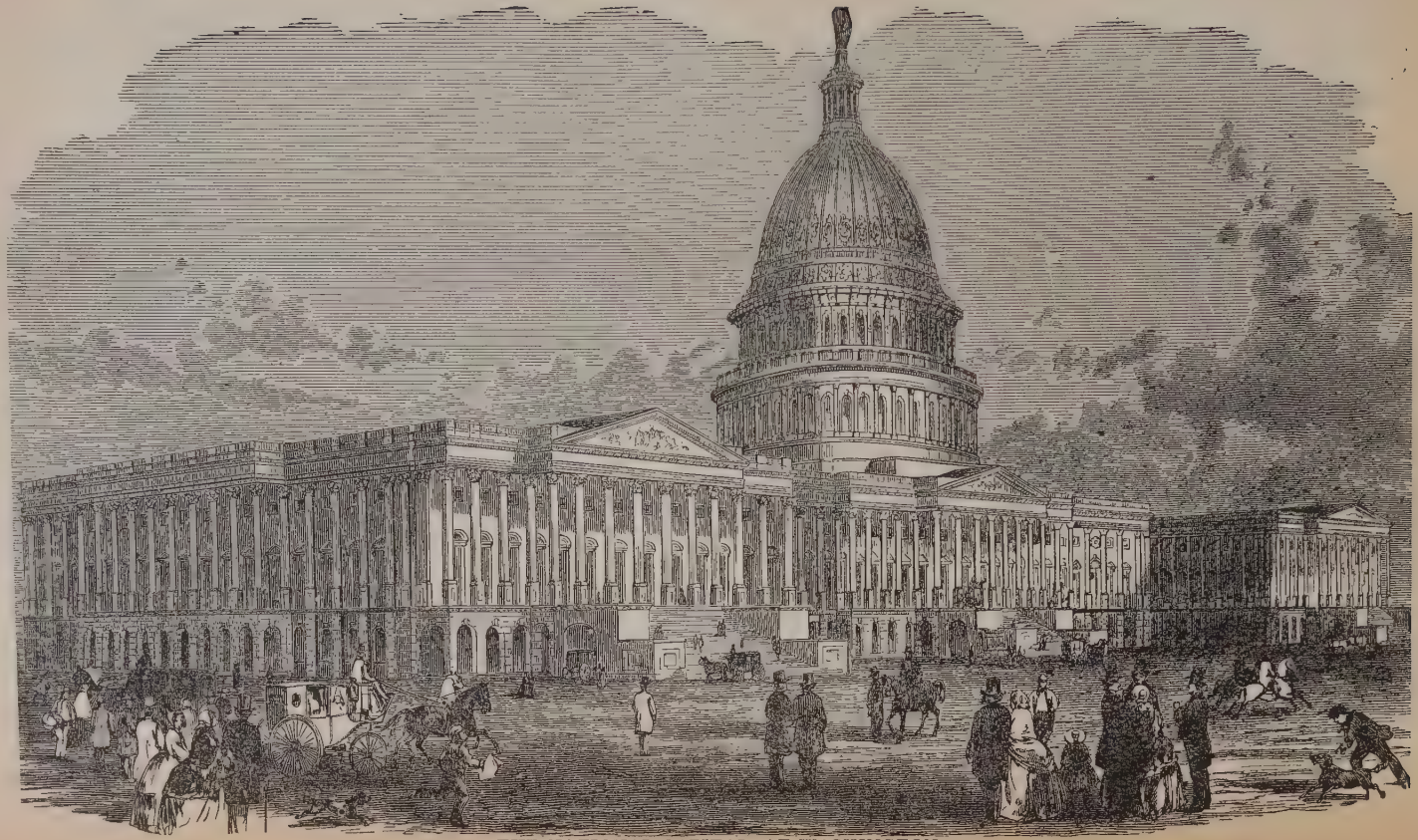
The mercantile fleet of the United States had, in 1871, 4,282,607 tons new admeasurement, of which 1,087,637 tons were employed in steam navigation,

Vessels which are engaged in foreign commerce and the whale fishery are registered, those which are employed in the coasting trade, mackerel fisheries, etc., are merely enrolled and licensed.

On the 30th of June, 1871, the tonnage was employed as follows:

In foreign trade	1,363,652 tons.	
whale fisheries	61,490 "	
Total registered tonnage		1,425,142
Enrolled vessels in the coasting trade	2,722,372	
Licensed " " " (under 20 tons)	42,228	
In the cod and mackerel fisheries	92,865	
Total registered and licensed tonnage		2,857,465
Total tonnage of the U. S		4,282,607

The tonnage of our merchant fleet was 1,042,404 in 1800, 1,232,502 in 1810; 1,298,958 in 1820, and 1,267,847 in 1832. During the next fifteen years it doubled; numbering 2,562,084 tons in 1845. In 1850 it reached 3,535,454 tons; in 1855, 5,212,001; and attained its greatest development in 1861, when it numbered 5,539,813 tons. The Southern insurrection, the British recognition of the Southern States as belligerents, and the depredations of Southern cruisers, bore with crushing weight on the shipping interests of the United States. Many ships were captured and destroyed, and many more passed into foreign hands. Official returns show that our ocean commerce is being carried more and more in foreign bottoms. In 1860 nearly 71 per cent. of our foreign commerce was in American ships; in 1864 it had decreased to 46 per cent.; in 1868, to 44 per cent.; and in 1871, to 38 per cent. There is no valid reason why our shipping interest should not rise from its present depression and again take



THE NATIONAL CAPITAL, AT WASHINGTON.

the prominent rank it held before the war. The United States produce an abundance of iron and of the best ship timber in the world. American skill and ingenuity have produced the best ship models known. Though the high price of labor and materials render competition with the older countries of Europe very difficult, yet with the wisest congressional enactments, and the most intelligent adjustment of taxes on ship-building materials, we may hope soon to re-assume our former position as a maratime nation.

The number of vessels which entered into the ports of the United States during the year ending June 30, 1871, was 30,102, with an aggregate tonnage of 10,009,184. Of these there were 19,406 foreign vessels, with a tonnage of 6,266,444 or 62½ per cent.

During the same year 29,861 vessels of 9,898,482 tons burden cleared from our ports, of which 10,288 vessels of 6,151,537 tons were foreign.

It has recently been estimated, that there are on the Great Lakes no less than 5,424 steamers, sailing vessels and barges, having an aggregate capacity of 717,299 tons, and total value of $53,343,000. In 1800 there were only 1,640 vessels of all kinds on those lakes, valued at $23,229,000, and having a total capacity of 412,127 tons.

The domestic commerce of the United States far exceeds the foreign commerce in the amount and value of the goods bought or sold. But as there is no bureau, official or unofficial, in which the movements of goods are registered, it is impossible to obtain statistics embracing the whole field. Our ocean coasts measure 33,633 miles (exclusive of Alaska); the lake shores 3,620 miles; and the Mississippi, with its tributaries, has a net-work of navigable waters extending over 35,650 miles, to which the other navigable streams add nearly 50,000 miles. The combined length of our canals is over 6,000 miles, and of railroads over 65,000 miles. Thus our country possesses an aggregate of great commercial highways, open to steam communication, exceeding 190,000 miles in length. And all these roads and water ways carry vast quantities of goods and effect the interchange of commodities between the different parts of the country. The Southern States send their cotton to the factories of the North, and receive in return Northern manufactures; the surplus of the Western grain moves to the Atlantic seaboard, to be consumed in the densely populated states of the East, or to be shipped to foreign lands; the Pennsylvania coal-fields furnish the households and steam engines of the New England and Middle States with fuel; and the forests of Maine, Wisconsin and Michigan supply the great lumber markets of Portland, Albany, Chicago, and other cities.

RAILROADS, TELEGRAPHS, AND CANALS.

The wonderful progress of the United States is clearly shown by the development of the railroad system. In 1830 the first 23 miles were opened for use; during the decade ending 1840, 3,153 miles were added; in that ending 1850, 5,508; in that ending 1860, 21,614; and in that ending 1870, 22,764 (notwithstanding the civil war, which occupied a part of this decade). At present the mileage probably exceeds 68,000, the construction of which cost in round numbers about $3,250,000,000, or $50,000 per mile. The mileage of all European railroads in 1871 was 66,135; of which Great Britain had 15,144; Germany 12,304; France 10,635; Russia 6,989; Austria 6,325; and Italy 3,648. Thus the time is near at hand when our railroads will exceed in length those of all Europe combined.

In 1872 there were 346 incorporated railroad companies.

The *Telegraph* service in the United States is performed by seven separate associations, which were estimated on the 1st of January, 1873, to have a total length of lines of 80,000 miles; of wires 180,000 miles; 6,300 stations; and an aggregate nominal capital of $60,000,000. The most important of these associations is the "Western Union Telegraph Company," which is a consolidation of most of the telegraph interests of the country prior to 1866. This company, on the 1st of July, 1872, controlled and operated 62,032 miles of line, 137,190 miles of wire, and 5,237 stations. Of this aggregate 1,212 miles of line were in New Brunswick and in Nova Scotia, and 512 miles of line in British Columbia; leaving 60,308 miles of line, and 133,936 miles of wire in the United States. There is probably no village of any importance in the country which is not within easy reach of telegraphic communication; and yet the construction of new lines is progressing uninterruptedly.

The *Canals* of national importance are those which connect the seabord with the great central region of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi valleys. Foremost amongst these is the *Erie Canal*, which was constructed from 1817 to 1822, under the direction of DeWitt Clinton, Governor of New York. It connects Albany at the head of navigation of the Hudson river, with Buffalo on the eastern extremity of Lake Erie, following the direction of the Mohawk valley, and thus in connection with the Hudson River forms an uninterrupted water communication between New York city and the Great Lakes. The total length of the canal is about 370 miles, which is, however, greatly increased by the numerous branches, extending in various diiections. One of these connects Rochester with the Alleghany river. New York city owes its pre-

eminence as the commercial metropolis of our country chiefly to this canal.

The *Pennsylvania Canal* consists of the central division, which connects Columbia on the Susquehanna river, with Hollidaysburg at the foot of the Alleghany Mountains; and the western division, which connects Pittsburgh with Johnstown. The distance of 37 miles intervening between Johnstown and Hollidaysburg is traversed by a portion of the Pennsylvania railroad. A branch canal extends from Wrightsville, opposite Columbia, along the lower course of the Susquehanna River to Havre de Grace, on Chesapeake Bay; and other lines follow the upper Susquehanna, terminating at Bellefonte and West Nanticoke. The commerce in coal and other mineral products of Pennsylvania has been greatly facilitated by this extensive canal system. The *Chesapeake and Ohio Canal* is designed to connect Chesapeake Bay with the Ohio river, and has thus far been completed from Alexandria and Georgetown along the Potomac river to Cumberland. The *James River and Canawha Canal* connects Richmond with Buchanan, Va., and follows the James River valley. The numerous other canals in the United States are chiefly of local importance, and their description will be found in the articles on the states in which they are situated.

EDUCATION.

The people of the United States have always recognized the paramount importance of education and mental culture. Twenty years after the first tree was felled and the first block-house built in New England, the settlers of Massachusetts, though neither numerous nor wealthy, founded Harvard University. This glorious example was soon followed in other colonies, and the spirit thus early manifested pervades the entire nation. In no country in the world is there a larger amount of money expended for purposes of education by communities or private citizens; and certainly the excellence of our school buildings and other appurtenances is unequaled. In 1871 benefactions and donations from private citizens to educational establishments amounted to the large sum of $8,592,000.

The general system of education originated in New England, where as early os 1628 provision was made for the education of every child in the settlements. In 1637 a school was ordered to be provided for every neighborhood of 50 families, and another of a higher grade of instruction for every 100 families. These schools were maintained by taxes raised in each district. The New England system of public schools has been adopted with but slight modifications by nearly all the states of the Union. The Federal Government has no vote in the management or establish-

ment of schools, and there is consequently in the cabinet no Minister or Secretary of Public Instruction, as in nearly all European governments; but Congress has aided the cause of education by reserving for the school fund of each state one section of land (of 640 acres) out of every township of the public domain. The amount of land thus appropriated or reserved for school purposes approaches nearly 12,000,000 acres. The older states have besides large permanent school funds; but the maintenance of the schools is secured chiefly by direct taxation, which is voted in all the states with great liberality.

The instruction given in the common schools is elementary and comprises reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and on outline of the history of the United States. There are, however, numerous public and private schools of a higher grade in the cities and many country districts, such as grammar schools, high schools, and institutions of secondary instruction, where, in addition to the elementary branches, Latin, German, French, mathematics, and the rudiments of the natural sciences are taught. In nearly all the states there are normal schools for the purpose of training competent teachers.

Colleges and Universities in which the classical and scientific or professional branches of learning are taught, abound in the United States to an extraordinary extent. The report of the Commissioner of Education for 1871 enumerates 372 collegiate institutions which are authorized to confer academic degrees; 56 agricultural and scientific schools; 117 theological seminaries; 40 law schools; 94 medical, dental and pharmaceutical schools; 136 female colleges; and 84 commercial and business colleges; and this enumeration is probably not complete. Many of these institutions are necessarily limited in means and performance, and yet await a fuller development and a wider scope; but there are also many with ample endowments and generous aims, which have greatly raised the standard of literary and scientific excellence. Such institutions as Yale, Harvard, and Princeton universities, the state University of Michigan, Columbia College in New York, and some others, are subjects of just pride to every American, and enjoy a well-deserved fame throughout the civilized world. A real university requires vast sums of money for its organization and management, and in those countries where the true idea of a university is best comprehended, the available means and forces are concentrated upon a few large institutions. The recognition of this fact is rapidly gaining ground in the United States, and instead of multiplying the already too large number of small colleges, it is becoming more and more the policy to unite and combine those existing.

Harvard College is the oldest institution of learning in the country. It was founded in 1636 and embraces, 1, an academical

department, including regular courses of religion, philosophy, rhetoric and oratory, history, modern languages, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, natural history, physiology, chemistry, mineralogy, physics and mathematics; 2, a divinity school, 3, a law school; 4, a medical school; 5, the Lawrence Scientific School and school of mining and practical geology; 6, a school of astronomy; and 7, a dental school. It is situated in Cambridge, near Boston, has 76 professors, and was attended in 1871 by 643 students. The library contains 176,000 volumes and is one of the richest in the country. Yale College, in New Haven, Conn., was established 62 years later than Harvard, and embraces, 1, an academical department; 2, the Sheffield Scientific school; 3, a theological department; 4, a law department; 5, a medical department; and 6, a school of the Fine Arts. The number of professors and instructors in 1871 was 68, and of students 840. The college possesses libraries with a total of near 100,000 volumes, valuable mineralogical, geological, botanical and zoological collections, an astronomical observatory, and an excellent chemical laboratory.

Columbia College, in New York, was chartered in 1784, and is a wealthy institution. It embraces, 1, a school of letters and science; 2, a school of mines; and 3, a law school; and has 34 professors and about 300 students. The College of Physicians and Surgeons of the city of New York, with 28 professors and 326 students, is connected with Columbia College.

The subjoined table contains a list of those colleges which, according to the report of the Commissioner of Education, had over ten teachers during the year 1871:

1	University of California	Oakland, California.
2	St. Ignatius College	San Francisco, California.
3	Santa Clara College	Santa Clara, California.
4	Trinity College	Hartford, Connecticut.
5	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Connecticut.
6	Yale College	New Haven, Connecticut.
7	University of Georgia	Athens, Georgia.
8	University of Chicago	Chicago, Illinois.
9	Northwestern University	Evanston, Illinois.
10	Knox College	Galesburg, Illinois.
11	Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois.
12	Monmouth College	Monmouth, Illinois.
13	Northwestern College	Naperville, Illinois.
14	Indiana University	Bloomington, Indiana.
15	Northwestern Christian University	Indianapolis, Indiana.
16	University of Notre Dame	Notre Dame, Indiana.
17	Upper Iowa University	Fayette, Iowa.
18	Iowa College	Grinnell, Iowa.
19	Simpson Centenary College	Indianapolis, Indiana.
20	Iowa State University	Iowa City, Iowa.
21	Iowa Wesleyan University	Mt. Pleasant, Iowa.
22	Berea College	Berea, Kentucky.
23	Kentucky University	Lexington, Kentucky.
24	Louisiana State University	Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
25	Straight University	New Orleans, Louisiana.
26	Jefferson College	St. Michael, Louisiana.
27	Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Maine.
28	St. John's College	Annapolis, Maryland.
29	Loyola College	Baltimore, Maryland.

30 Rock Hill College.....Ellicott, Maryland.
31 St. Charles College.....Ellicott, Maryland.
32 Mount St. Mary's College.....Emmettsburg, Maryland.
33 Wesleyan Maryland College.....Westminster, Maryland.
34 Amherst College.....Amherst, Massachusetts.
35 Boston College.....Boston, Massachusetts.
36 Harvard College.....Cambridge, Massachusetts.
37 Tufts College.....College Hill, Massachusetts.
38 Williams College.....Williamstown, Massachusetts.
39 College of the Holy Cross.....Worcester, Massachusetts.
40 Michigan University.....Ann Arbor, Michigan.
41 Hillsdale College.....Hillsdale, Michigan.
42 Kalamazoo College.....Kalamazoo, Michigan.
43 Olivet College.....Olivet, Michigan.
44 University of Mississippi.....Oxford, Mississippi.
45 Pass Christian College.....Pass Christian, Mississippi.
46 University of Missouri.....Columbia, Missouri.
47 McGee College.....College Mound, Missouri.
48 St. Louis University.....St. Louis, Missouri.
49 Washington University.....St. Louis, Missouri.
50 Dartmouth College.....Hanover, New Hampshire.
51 Rutgers College.....New Brunswick, New Jersey.
52 College of New Jersey.....Princeton, New Jersey.
53 Seton Hall College.....S. Orange, New Jersey.
54 Alfred University.....Alfred, New Jersey.
55 Brooklyn Collegiate and Polytechnic Institute.....Brooklyn, New York.
56 St. Joseph's College.....Buffalo, New York.
57 St. Lawrence University.....Canton, New York.
58 Hamilton College.....Clinton, New York.
59 St. Johns College.....Fordham, New York.
60 Madison College.....Hamilton, New York.
61 Cornell University.....Ithaca, New York.
62 N. Y. City College.....New York, New York.
63 College of St. Francis Xavier.....New York, New York.
64 Columbia College.....New York, New York.
65 Manhattan College.....New York, New York.
66 University of New York City.....New York, New York.
67 Union College.....Schenectady, New York.
68 Baldwin University.....Berea, Ohio.
69 St. Xavier College.....Cincinnati, Ohio.
70 Mt. St. Mary's of the West.....Cincinnati, Ohio.
71 Keynon College.....Gambier, Ohio.
72 Western Reserve College.....Hudson, Ohio.
73 Mt. Union College.....Mt. Union, Ohio.
74 Oberlin College.....Oberlin, Ohio.
75 Antioch College.....Yellow Springs, Ohio.
76 Hiram College.....Hiram, Ohio.
77 Willamette University.....Salem, Oregon.
78 Andalusia College.....Andalusia, Pennsylvania.
79 Augustian College of Villanova.....Delaware county, Pa.
80 Lafayette College.....Easton, Pennsylvania.
81 Pennsylvania College.....Gettysburgh, Pennsylvania.
82 Lincoln University.....Oxford, Pennsylvania.
83 University of Pennsylvania.....Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
84 La Salle College.....Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
85 Western University.....Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
86 Lehigh University.....South Bethleham, Pennsylvania.
87 Washington and Jefferson College.....Washington, Pennsylvania.
88 Waynesburg College.....Waynesburg, Pennsylvania.
89 St. Vincent's College.....Westmoreland county, Philadelphia.
90 Brown University.....Providence, R. I.
91 University of South Carolina.....Columbia, South Carolina.
92 East Tennessee University.....Knoxville, Tennessee.
93 University of Nashville.....Nashville, Tennessee.
94 Waco University.....Waco, Texas.
95 University of Vermont.....Burlington, Vermont.
96 Norwich University.....Norfield, Vermont.
97 University of Virginia.....University of Virginia P. O.
98 Washington and Lee University.....Lexington, Virginia.
99 Richmond College.....Richmond, Virginia.
100 Roanoke College.....Salem, Virginia.
101 College of William and Mary.....Williamsburg, Virginia.
102 West Virginia State University.....Morgantown, W. Virginia.
103 West Virginia College.....Flemington, W. Virginia.
104 St. Vincent's College.....Wheeling, W. Virginia.

105 University of Wisconsin.....Madison, Wisconsin.
106 Racine College.....Racine, Wisconsin.
107 Ripon College.....Ripon, Wisconsin.
108 St John's College.....Prairie du Cnien, Wisconsin.
109 Georgetown.....Georgetown, D. C.
110 University of Deseret.....Salt Lake City, Utah.
111 Franklyn and Marshall College.....Loncoster, Pennsylvania.

The report of the Commissioner of Education enumerates 68 agricultural and scientific schools, the more important of which are associated with and form parts of older colleges and universities. Many of them, however, have been founded on an independent basis. Those scientific institutions which received government aid by land grants number twenty-four, with 180 professors and over 2,000 students.

The only schools maintained by the Federal Government are the United States Military Academy and the United States Naval Academy. The former is situated at West Point, on the Hudson river, in the midst of scenery unsurpassed for picturesque beauty. It was established in 1802, and nearly all the officers of the regular army have there received their education and training. The superintendent is usually an officer of high rank. His military staff consists of an adjutant, quartermaster, treasurer, surgeon, and two assistant surgeons. The academic staff consists of the commandant of the cadets, who is also instructor of tactics, eight professors, and thirty-one assistant professors and instructors. The number of pupils is 227. The discipline is strict, and the instruction very thorough, including the following branches: Military tactics, engineering, natural and experimental philosophy. mathematics, drawing, chemistry, mineralogy and geology, ethics and law, the French and Spanish languages, ordnance and gunnery. Candidates for admission to the Academy must be over 17 and under 22 years of age, and pass an examination in reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and the history of the United States.

The Naval Academy, situated at Annapolis, Md., is under the charge of a superintendent, assisted by eight naval officers The academic staff includes 67 professors and assistant professors who teach seamanship, mathematics, steam-engineering, astronomy and navigation, natural philosophy, ethics and English studies, the French and Spanish languages, and drawing. The number of pupils is 253. Candidates for admission must be between 14 and 18 years of age, and must pass an examination similar to that which is required for admission into the military academy.

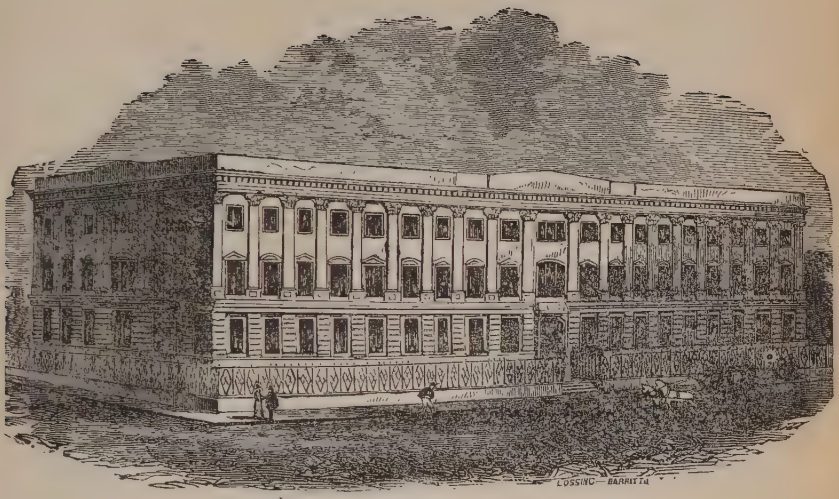
Notwithstanding the great efforts of communities, associations, and individuals, to promote the cause of education in the United States, the number of adults who cannot read and write is still very large. According to the census for 1870 there are in the United States, 5,658,144 illiterates over 10 years of age who cannot read or write; that is, between 14 and 15 per cent. of the

entire population. This proportion places our country, in regard to the dissemination of elementary education, far in advance of England, France, Italy; but it is sufficiently unfavorable to arrest the attention of every intelligent American citizen. The largest contingents to this army of illiterates are furnished by the colored people of the Southern states, formerly held in bondage, and those immigrants who come from countries where popular education is notoriously neglected. Yet the remainder of native whites who cannot read and write is much larger than the number of elementary schools in the country would seem to warrant. In some places the school accommodations are as yet inadequate, notably in the Southern states and more sparsely inhabited districts of the new territories. In others, however, educational facilities are abundant, but regular school attendance is not sufficiently enforced by those having the care of children. To remedy the evils consequent upon such neglect, legislation to compel attendance is recommended, and has been carried out in some localities.

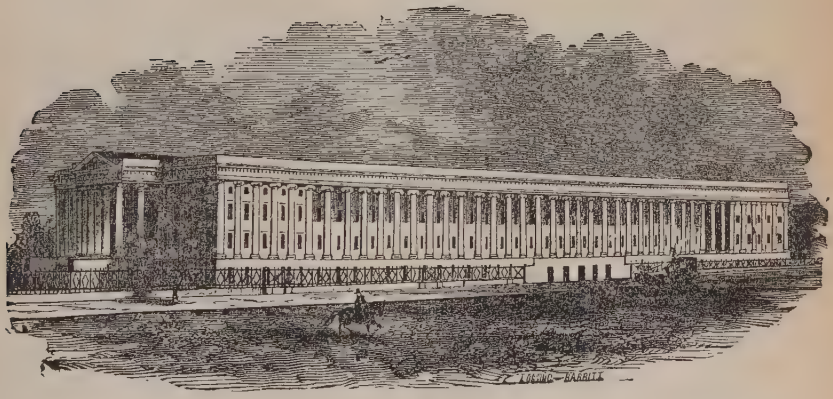
The distribution of illiterates is, however, very unequal in the various sections of the country. In northern New England, central New York, northern Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, southern Michigan, and the larger portion of Iowa, the percentage of illiterates to the whole population is less than 5 per cent.; and varies in the remainder of the states north of the Missouri and Ohio river, from 5 to 20. The Broad belt of country extending from the Chesapeake Bay through the Carolinas, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, southern Arkansas, and Texas, has a percentage of illiterates varying from 20 to 60; but includes extensive tracts, where it rises to over 60 per cent.

LIBRARIES.

The Americans are a nation of readers. In the northern and western states books are found in almost every household, and works of a religious or popular character are issued in immense editions and sold all over the country. The sales of some works have reached the enormous number of 200,000 copies and over. The census for 1870 gives the number of libraries in the United States as 164,815, containing 45,528,938 volumes. Of these libraries 108,800, with 26,072,420 volumes, are private; and 56,015, with 19,459,518 volumes, are public. Large as these numbers may appear, they are far below the truth. The Commissioner of the Census remarks, that in respect to certain states, the figures returned by the marshals were ludicrously disproportionate. Thus, for example, for the state of Connecticut, no returns of private libraries were made at all, the deputy marshal reporting that no extra information could be obtained. The Congressional Library in Washington, probably the largest collection of books in the country, contained, in 1870, 199,000 volumes. The num-



GENERAL POST OFFICE AT WASHINGTON.



TREASURY BUILDING, WASHINGTON.

ber of volumes in the libraries, both public and private, was, in Pennsylvania, 6,477,840; in New York, 6,310,302; in Ohio, 3,687,363 in Illinois, 3,323,914; in Massachusetts, 3,017,813; in Michigan, 2,174,744; in Kentucky, 1,909,230; in Maryland, 1,613,483; in Indiana, 1,125,553; in Virginia, 1,107,313; and in Missouri, 10,65,638. The libraries of the following states contained from 500,000 to 1,000,000 volumes: Alabama, District of Columbia, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, and Wisconsin. Wyoming and Arizona contain the least number of books, barely exceeding 2,000 in all libraries.

THE PRESS.

The aggregate of the newspapers and periodicals published in the United States, in 1870, was 5,871, issuing the enormous number of 1,508,548,250 copies per annum, and having a total circulation of 20,842,475. The average of copies issued during the year was 40 single numbers for every head of the population, and one newspaper and periodical was published for every 6,800 inhabitants. Of the aggregate number (5,871) there were 574 dailies, 107 tri-weeklies, 115 semi-weeklies, 4,295 weeklies, 96 semi-monthlies, 622 monthlies, 13 bi-monthlies, and 49 quarterlies. Of the various interests represented, politics engrossed by far the largest number, viz.: 4,333. The remainder comprised 93 agricultural journals; 81 devoted to benevolent or secret societies; 142 commercial and financial juornals; 503 illustrated, literary, and miscellaneous; 407 religious; 6 sporting; 207 technical and professional; while 79 contained only advertisements.

OUR POSTAL SYSTEM.

The Post Office is one of the most useful and important of human institutions. It is, indeed, an immense public blessing. We would almost as willingly do without government as without the mails. Public mails are altogether a modern affair. Ancient governments had their couriers to bear official communications with extraordinary dispatch, but they had nothing like our post office system for transmitting and delivering the correspondence of private citizens. The word *post* is from the Latin *positus*, because couriers were *placed* at convenient posts along the route, with horses all saddled and bridled, each ready to hasten to the succeeding post on the arrival of the courier from the preceding.

The first posts of which we have any account, were in the Medo-Persian Empire. They were merely a governmental concern. Some interesting references thereto are incidentally given in the Book of Esther: "And the letters were sent by posts into all the king's provinces to destroy, to kill, and to cause to perish all Jews, both young and old, little children and women, in one day, even upon the thirteenth day of the twelfth month, which is the month Adar." "The posts went out, being hastened by the king's commandment, and the decree was given in Shushan the palace." "And he wrote in king Ahasuerus' name, and sealed it with the King's ring, and sent letters by posts on horseback, and riders on mules, camels, and young dromedaries." "So the posts that rode upon mules and camels went out, being hastened and pressed on by the king's commandment."

Of course the Roman emperors had pretty extensive postal arrangements, but they were almost wholly military, being designed to transmit intelligence between the armies and the capital.

Tiberius is said to have thrown away dispatches with indignation if they were more than three days in coming from the most remote points of Italy. In the East, carrier-pigeons were formerly much employed to carry letters, and when well trained their performances were wonderful. They have occasionally been employed in Europe, but where the telegraph operates the pigeon may now rest. It is worthy of remark, that when the Spaniards discovered Peru, in 1527, they found messengers posted at short intervals along the road from Cusco to Quito, to transmit with speed the orders of the Inca—a fact which of itself discloses considerable advancement in civilization. At one period the butchers of the large cities of Europe, who rode over the country to buy up cattle, were employed to convey letters. The University of Paris, and afterwards the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, employed private messengers to convey, at appointed times, the correspondence of the students; the messengers commonly went afoot. The growth of the occasional and irregular government express into a regular, systematic, national establishment, seems to have been gradual and slow.

We see the beginning of the English postal system in the statutes of Edward III, but it was not till the reign of Queen Anne that it assumed anything like its present form. Virginia has the credit of projecting a post office in the Americam Colonies as early as 1692. A patent was laid before the Assembly and passed, for making Mr. Neal Postmaster General of Virginia and other parts of North America. The act, however, did not go into practical effect, the inhabitants being so dispersed. In 1710 the first post office in the Colonies was established by an act of Parliament—the act "for establishing a general post office, for all her Majesty's dominions"—the Postmaster General of Great Britain being "at liberty to keep one chief letter office in New York, and other chief offices at some convenient place or places in each of her Majesty's provinces or colonies in America." The appointment of Dr. Franklin, in 1753, as Deputy Postmaster General for America, and his removal, in 1774, by the British Ministry, for his connection with the celebrated Hutchinson and Oliver letters, imparts special interest to the history of the Colonial Post Office. During the Revolution, our post office affairs were, of course,

badly deranged, and they did not acquire complete system till the adoption of our National Constitution, in 1789.

It was wise in the framers of the constitution to confer upon Congress the exclusive power of establishing post offices and post roads. To this we owe much of the dispatch, precision and reliability which our national post office system possesses. This system is one of the precious blessings as well as bonds of the Union, and one whose value is seldom sufficiently appreciated. The German post office establishments were for a long time extremely clumsy and inefficient, because they were not made a unit, each separate state having its own independent establishment. German unity has doubtless emancipated them from this encumbered condition.

The post office is a great civilizer, and it ought to be trained to its highest efficiency. It is very interesting to consider the extent and fidelity of its operations in our country. We enclose a letter which we have written to a distant friend, or perhaps to a distant stranger, in an envelope which cost a trifle over three cents, drop it through an aperture in a wall labeled "letter box," and the chances are many to one that it quietly proceeds, with little delay, and perhaps with tremendous speed, to his hand, whether he resides in a solitary dwelling upon the borders upon a remote western prairie, or amid numerous thousands in the bewildering city. If our letter is directed across the ocean, its cheap and faithful transmission is more wonderful. If we should employ a special messenger to do the errand for us, how very much more would it cost. And then the danger of accidents and of unfaithfulness would be greatly multiplied. Thanks to Government, the operation is as useful as it is wonderful and systematic.

The consideration of postal affairs in general, naturally awakens in the mind of every American interesting reminiscences of this important branch of our Government, as well as of those who have presided over its destinies. The General Post Office at the National Capital, with its minor post offices in every portion of the country, is one of the most useful and important departments of the Government. It is one with which the people have more intercourse, and with which they are better acquainted,

than with any other. The transmission of letters and other mailable matter to the places where directed, for the people, instead of leaving them to do this business for themselves, in the best way they can, is, as we know, by no means peculiar to our Government, but is found in every civilized country.

We have already shown that post offices existed in this country long before our present form of Government was established. There is, however, but little publicly known of their history, although the General Post Office is in possession of some very interesting and valuable materials on the subject. The first action in regard to a post office anywhere in this country appears to have been an order of the General Court, in Massachusetts, November 5, 1639, providing that notice be given that Richard Fairbank's house, in Boston, be the place appointed for all letters which were brought beyond seas, or to be sent thither, to be brought to, so that he might take care that they be delivered or sent according to directions. This was only about nineteen years after the landing on Plymouth Rock of those 101 famous Pilgrims who founded the first European settlement in New England. Somewhat later it seems to have become the custom to bring letters to the Exchange, in the Town Hall, to run the risk of being forwarded by visitors; but this proved to be so precarious a method that the Council, in 1677, appointed John Hayward Postmaster for the whole colony. He was "to take in and convey letters according to their direction." This is the first recorded notice of any attempt in the colonies to convey letters inland by post. This primitive postal arrangement was brought about by the petition of certain Boston merchants to the court, and the subsequent appointment of Hayward.

By gradual but untraceable growth, local arrangements like the above became general in the colonies; but there was nothing like system until 1710, when the British Parliament authorized the Postmaster General "to keep one chief letter office in New York and other chief letter offices in each of her Majesty's provinces or colonies in America." This was during Queen Anne's reign. Post routes were first established in 1711, to Maine and Plymouth once a week, and to New York once a fortnight. Deputy Postmasters General for North America were subsequently appointed

from time to time by the British Postmaster General. Colonel Spottswood was one of these, in 1737, as in that year he appointed Benjamin Franklin Postmaster of Philadelphia. He was subsequently employed as comptroller of several post offices. Doctor Franklin was appointed Deputy Postmaster General of the British Colonies in the year 1753, jointly with William Hunter, with a salary between them of £600—"if they could get it." Having already held positions in the service, Franklin was not without experience in postal duties. Down to that time the American office had never paid anything to that of England. The promise of £600 to Franklin and Hunter, to be divided between them, if they could make that amount out of the profits of the office, was a powerful incentive to exertion. Franklin's fertility of resources and initiative mind enabled them, after some time, to accomplish their object. The improvements in the mails which he introduced were at first so expensive that the office sunk £900 in four years. But after that it began to pay both him and the Crown a handsome revenue. In the year 1754, he gave notice that the mail to New England, which used to start once a fortnight in winter, should start once a week all the year, "whereby answers might be obtained to letters between Philadelphia and Boston in three weeks, which used to require six weeks."

In the year 1774, when Franklin was removed, to punish him for his active sympathies with the colonists, the office was yielding a clear revenue to the British treasury of £3,000 per annum, just three times as much as the yield from the Post Office of Ireland at the same time. Speaking of this progress of the office under his management and of his dismissal, Franklin quietly observes: "Since that imprudent transaction they [the British Ministry] have received from it—not one farthing." One of the first acts of the colonists, under their separate organization, was to place him at the head of their Post Office Department. The Continental Congress ordained, on the 26th of July, 1775, that a Postmaster General be appointed for the United Colonies. Under this ordinance, Benjamin Franklin was unanimously chosen Postmaster General, being the first under the revolutionary organization on whom the honor was conferred. It is a singular coincidence that this eminent philosopher, who cradled our postal

system in its infancy, also led the way, by first bringing the electric fluid within the power of man, for the electric telegraph, the other great medium for transmitting intelligence. Franklin was allowed $1,000 per annum for himself and $340 for a secretary and comptroller.

But the necessities of the revolutionary struggle demanded the abilities of Franklin for another sphere of action. On the 7th day of November, 1776, Dr. Franklin was succeeded by his son-in-law, Richard Bache, who remained in the office till the 28th of January, 1782, when he was succeeded by Ebenezer Hazard, who was the last head of the General Post Office under the Confederation, he holding the office until the inauguration of President Washington's administration. He was also the compiler of the valuable historical collections bearing his name.

The Articles of Confederation of 1781, gave to Congress "the sole and exclusive right and power of establishing and regulating post offices from one state to another, throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same as may be requisite to defray the expense of said office."

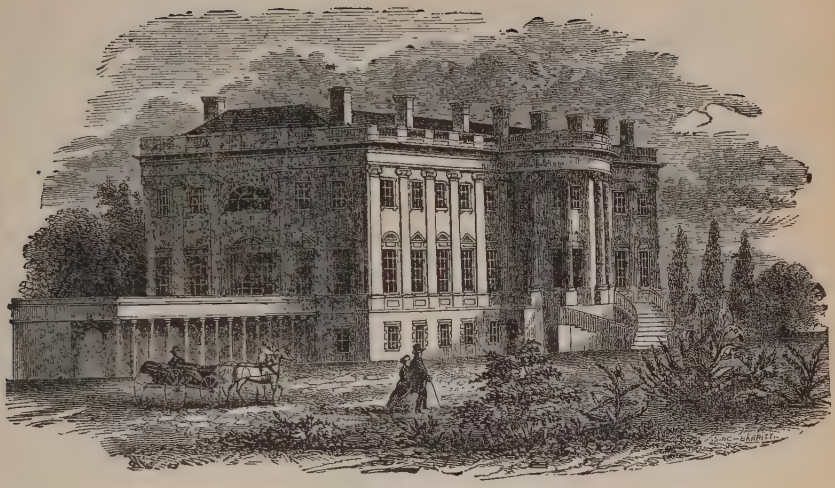
The colonists were careful to preserve the opportunities for epistolary communications between the citizens of the colonies. An act was early passed by the deputies from the colonies to the Continental Congress to secure this end. As early as 1778 the Confederated Congress passed resolutions setting forth the importance of the establishment of post offices and post routes, and also its exclusive right to establish them. On the 28th of January, 1782, as we have shown, this body elected Ebenezer Hazard Postmaster General to succeed Mr. Bache, the son-in-law and former assistant of Dr. Franklin. The records of the time furnish but meager details as to the operations of the postal establishment during the official terms of these two gentlemen, a period of over twelve years. The meager yearly receipts show that its energies slumbered. This was owing, in a great measure, to the stagnation of business, resulting from the war of the Revolution, and the consequent inactivity of correspondence, but other causes are also believed to have contributed to its inefficiency. A more potent authority than that of the Confederated Congress was required to impart to it due vigor, and this the Constitutional

Government, which went into operation on the 4th of March, 1789, supplied.

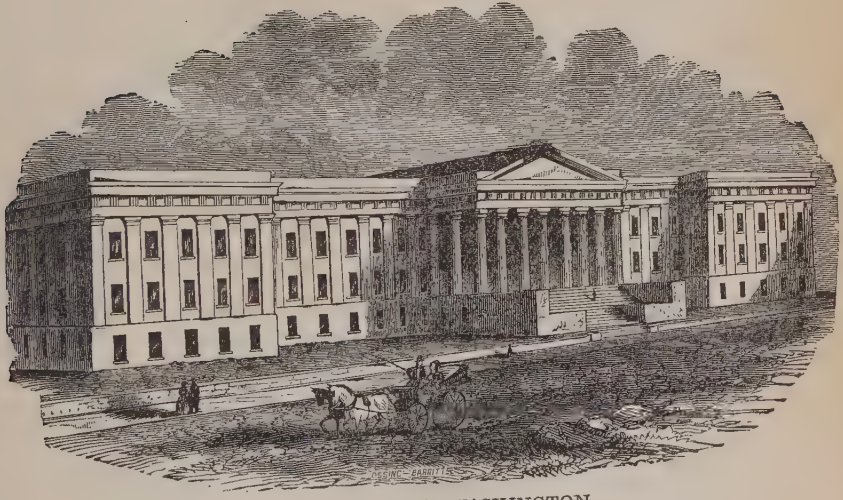
To find the basis of our present postal establishment, we have only to look in the Federal Constitution, where it is stated that 'Congress shall have the power to establish post offices and post roads." These few words are the foundation of all our laws relating to post offices, postmasters, post roads, transportation of the mails, and everything else appertaining to the subject. It is difficult to get too exaggerated an idea of the vastness of this great governmental institution for the diffusion of intelligence among the people. It not only reaches out its arms to the remotest boundaries of our own country, but, by the agencies of ships, stretches over the seas, and extends to every part of the civilized world.

The Constitution reserving to the National Legislature the right "to establish post offices and post roads," Congress enacted a law, in 1789, providing for the appointment of a postmaster general and defining his duties. What is now called the Post Office Department was established by this act as the "Post Office," and subsequently as the "General Post Office." The act, passed September 22, 1789, and temporarily establishing the post office, was the first act of Congress, under the new form of government, relating to the subject. It briefly declared that "there shall be appointed a postmaster general," and that his powers and salary, and the compensation to the assistant or clerk and the deputies, and the regulations of the office, should be the same as they were under the resolutions and ordinances passed by the Congress of the Confederation. The Postmaster General was made subject to the direction of the President in all matters pertaining to his office. It will be seen that this act refers the origin of our post office system to the old Confederation, and beyond. It was the post office system which we have traced from its first perceptible beginnings, that was continued by the act of September 22, 1789.

On the 26th of September, 1789, President Washington commissioned Samuel Osgood, previously a delegate in Congress from Massachusetts, to administer the office, which was then located in the City of New York, it having been customary to keep it



WHITE HOUSE AT WASHINGTON.



PATENT OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

where Congress held its sessions. Thence it was taken to Philadelphia in December, 1790, from which place it was removed to Washington, with the other executive bureaus, in the year 1800. Mr. Osgood was the first Postmaster General appointed after the Federal Constitution went into effect in the spring of 1789. When the new Government commenced operations, there were but seventy-five post offices in the Union, and only eighteen hundred and seventy-five miles of post road, on much of which the mails were conveyed but once a fortnight. The entire annual revenue of the office was $37,935, and its expenditures $32,140. The amount paid for the compensation of postmasters was $8,198; and for the transportation of the mail, $22,081. These statistics, commencing with the year 1790, are the earliest reliable ones we have of the operations of the postal system under the act of September 22, 1789.

In 1792, a "General Post Office" was permanently established, under the immediate direction of a Post Master General, who was authorized to appoint an assistant and deputy postmasters at all places where found necessary, and to provide for carrying the mail of the United States "by stage carriages or horses." From this primitive beginning, the operations of the General Post Office have expanded to a degree fully up to the requirements of the increased population and intelligence of the people. Other laws have from time to time been enacted for the regulation of this important department.

The magnitude of the interests confided to the post office department is such, that the Postmaster General has become a Cabinet officer, and is not only required to regulate vast concerns of his department, but, in addition, to assist in deliberations which decide the home and foreign policy of the Government. Previous to 1829, the Postmaster General was not recognized as a member of the President's Cabinet. The precedent was established by President Jackson, who invited Postmaster General Wm. T. Barry, of Kentucky, to a seat in his Cabinet. Of course Mr. Barry accepted the position, and thus became the first chief of the postal establishment who took a seat at the council board of the President. He was appointed Postmaster General March 9, 1829, and was succeeded by Amos Kendall, May 1, 1835, who, since 1829,

had been Fourth Auditor of the Treasury. In 1835 Mr. Barry was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Spain, but died at Liverpool, England, on his way to Madrid.

The Hon. John A. J. Creswell, of Maryland, was the twenty-third Postmaster-General of the United States. He was nominated and confirmed March 5, 1869, and resigned June 24, 1874. Hon. Marshall Jewell, of Connecticut, U. S. Minister to Russia, was recalled and appointed his successor.

THE HISTORY OF POSTAGE STAMPS.

The introduction of the postal system, as it at present exists in all countries on the globe, has been credited to England, when, in 1840, covers and envelopes were devised to carry letters all over the kingdom at one penny the single rate. This plan was adopted through the exertions of Sir Rowland Hill, who has been aptly termed the "father of postage-stamps." It now appears, however, that there is another aspirant for the introduction of the stamp system. In Italy, as far back as 1818, letter sheets were prepared, duly stamped in the left lower corner, while letters were delivered by specially appointed carriers, on the prepayment of the money which the stamp represented. The early stamp represented a courier on horseback, and was of three values. It was discontinued in 1836. Whether Italy or Great Britain first introduced postage-stamps, other countries afterward began to avail themselves of this method for the prepayment of letters, although they did not move very promptly in the matter.

Great Britain enjoyed the monopoly of stamps for three years, and, though the first stamps were issued in 1840, she has made fewer changes in her stamps than any other country, and has suffered no change at all in the main design—the portrait of Queen Victoria. In other countries, notably in our own, the Sandwich Islands, and the Argentine Republic, the honor of portraiture on the stamps is usually distributed among various high public officers; but in Great Britain the Queen figures on her stamps, and not even the changes that thirty-five years have made in her face are shown on the national and colonial postage-stamps.

The next country to follow the example of England was Brazil. In 1842 a series of three stamps was issued, consisting

simply of large numerals, denoting the value, and all printed in black. Then came the cantons in Switzerland and Findland, with envelopes which to-day are very rare, and soon after them, Bavaria, Belgium, France, Hanover, New South Wales, Tuscany, Austria, British Guiana, Prussia, Saxony, Schleswig, Holstein, Spain, Denmark, Italy, Oldenburg, Trinidad, Wurtemburg, and the United States. Other countries followed in the train, until, at the present moment there is scarcely any portion of the globe, inhabited by civilized people, which has not postage-stamps.

MAILABLE MATTER.

Mailable matter is divided into three classes, viz. :—

1. Letters.
2. Regular printed matter.
3. Miscellaneous matter.

First Class. — This class embraces all correspondence, wholly or partly in writing, except *book*-manuscript and corrected proof-sheets passing between authors and publishers; local or drop-letters and U. S. postal cards.

Second Class. — This class embraces all matter exclusively in print, and regularly issued at stated periods from a known office of publication, without addition by writing, mark or sign.

Third Class. — This class embraces all pamphlets, occasional publications, transient newspapers, magazines, handbills, posters, unsealed circulars, prospectuses, books, book-manuscript, proof-sheets, corrected proof-sheets, maps, prints, engravings, blanks, flexible patterns, articles of merchandise, sample-cards, phonographic paper, letter envelopes, postal envelopes and wrappers, cards, plain and ornamental paper, photographic representations of different types, seeds, cuttings, bulbs, roots, scions, and all other matter which may be declared mailable by law, and all other articles not above the weight prescribed by law, which are not from their form or nature, liable to destroy, deface, or otherwise injure the contents of the mail-bag, or the person of any one engaged in the postal service.

The weight of any package to be sent in the mail shall not ex-

ceed four pounds, except documents printed by order of Congress or emanating from any of the Executive Departments.

Packages containing liquids, poisons, glass, explosive chemicals, or any other matter liable to deface or destroy the contents of the mail, or injure the person of any one connected with the service, must be rigidly excluded from the mails. If such matter be found in any post office, or in any mail pouch or sack, it must be retained by the postmaster, and the Department (Third Assistant Postmaster General) notified of the fact, when instructions will be given as to its disposition. If found by a postal clerk or route agent, it must be delivered to the post office at the end of the route, where it will be treated as above directed.

All books, pamphlets, circulars, prints, etc., of an obscene, vulgar or indecent character; all letters or circulars concerning illegal lotteries,* so-called gift concerts, or other similar enterprise offering prizes, or concerning schemes devised and intended to deceive and defraud the public, for the purpose of obtaining money under false pretenses, must be withdrawn from the mails by postmasters at either the office of mailing, or the office of delivery. Postmasters will promptly notice violations of this section, and when the party by whom such matter is mailed is known with any degree of certainty, the attention of the United States attorney for the district must be called to the case, and the evidence necessary for conviction, including the matter in question, placed in his hands. (See sections 148 and 149 of the law.) The case must also be reported to the special agent of the Department for the district, and all the facts at once communicated to the Department (Second Assistant Postmaster General, Division of Mail Depredations and Special Agents). Should the party by whom the matter is mailed not be known, it must be sent to the Third Assistant Postmaster General, in a securely sealed package, and a letter advising him of the transmission of the package sent by the same mail, *but in a separate envelope.*

And all letters upon the envelope of which, or postal card upon which scurrilous epithets have been written or printed, or disloyal

* Lottery schemes, sanctioned by enactments of State legislatures, are held to be legal, and letters and circulars concerning such will be allowed to pass through the mails.

devices printed or engraved, must also be rigidly excluded from the mails. Such matter must be forwarded to the Dead-Letter Office, marked as "unmailable."

To *inclose* or conceal a letter, *or other thing* (except bills and receipts for subscription), *in*, or to write or print anything, after; its publication, *upon* any newspaper, pamphlet, magazine, or other printed matter, is illegal, and subjects such printed matter, and the entire package of which it is a part, *to letter postage*, and also subjects the offender to a *fine of five dollars* for every such offense and in such cases if the person addressed refuse to pay such letter postage, the package must be returned to the office at which it was mailed, in order that the postmaster may cause the offender to be prosecuted for the penalty.

A business card printed or impressed on the wrapper or envelope of any printed matter, or a simple mark designed to call attention to any article in such printed matter, does not subject it to letter postage.

RATES OF POSTAGE, &c.

LETTERS.—The law requires postage on all letters (including those to foreign countries when prepaid) to be prepaid by stamps or stamped envelopes, prepayment in money being prohibited. All drop letters must be prepaid. The rate of postage on drop letters, at offices where free delivery by carrier is established, is two cents per half ounce or fraction of a half ounce; at offices where such free delivery is *not* established, the rate is one cent.

The single rate of postage on all domestic mail letters throughout the United States is three cents per half ounce, with an additional rate of three cents for each additional half ounce or fraction of a half ounce.

Postmasters are required to return to the writers, free of cost, all letters not delivered or called for, when requested so to do by the person mailing them. Persons mailing letters may write on them a request to the postmaster to return the letter to them if not delivered in any number of days they may choose to mention, and it is made the duty of the postmaster to do so.

Photographic albums are chargeable with book postage—four cents for each four ounces or fraction thereof.

Any word or communication, whether by printing, writing, marks or signs, upon the cover or wrapper of a newspaper, pamphlet or magazine, or other printed matter other than the name and address of the person to whom it is to be sent, and the date when the subscription expires, subjects the package to letter postage.

Valuable letters may be registered by the payment of a registration fee of ten cents in addition to the regular letter rate of postage.

No matter can pass through the mails free.

Postage must be collected on newspapers published in the county where delivered.

Exchanges not free. Publishers must pay postage on each exchange received. Postal cards uncalled for are not sent to the dead letter office.

Postal cards cannot be sent the second time.

Ordinary cards can be transmitted through the mails by affixing one cent stamp, provided the entire message is printed. The address may be written.

Letters.—Three cents for each half ounce or fraction thereof.

Drop Letters.—Where delivered by carriers two cents for each half ounce or fraction thereof. All other offices one cent for each half ounce or fraction thereof.

Printed Matter and Merchandise.—One cent for each ounce or fraction thereof.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE PUBLIC.

Greater security will be afforded to the public, by careful attention to the following recommendations:

To mail all letters, etc., as early as practicable, especially when sent in large numbers, as is frequently the case with newspapers and circulars. The trouble of the office is much diminished if letters, when mailed in large numbers, are tied in bundles, with the addresses all in one direction.

To make the address legible and complete, giving the name of the post office, county and state. The name of the street and

number of the house should also be given on letters addressed to cities where letter carriers are employed; while the letter will eventually reach its destination without a number, the omission is often a cause of hesitation and delay. In the case of letters for places in foreign countries, the name of the country as well as the post office should be given in full. Letters addressed, for instance, merely to "London," without adding "England," are frequently sent to Canada, and *vice versa*, thereby causing delay, and often serious loss.

To see that every letter, newspaper or other packet sent by mail, is securely folded and fastened. Avoid using, as much as possible, cheap envelopes, made of thin paper, especially where more than one sheet of paper, or any other article than paper, is inclosed. Being often handled, and even in the mail-bags subject to pressure, such envelopes not unfrequently split open, often giving cause of complaint against officials who are entirely innocent in the matter.

Never to send money or any other article of value through the mail, except either by means of a money-order or in a registered letter. Any person who sends money or jewelry in an unregistered letter, not only runs a risk of losing his property, but exposes to temptation every one through whose hands his letter passes, and may be the means of ultimately bringing some clerk or letter carrier to ruin.

To provide, in cities where letter carriers are employed, letter-boxes at the offices or private residences, thereby saving much delay in the delivery of mail matter.

To see that every letter contains *the full name and post office address of the writer, with county and state*, in order to secure the return of the letter, if the person to whom it is directed cannot be found. A much larger portion of the undelivered letters could be returned if the names and addresses of the senders were always either fully and plainly written inside or embossed on the envelopes. Persons who have large correspondence find it most convenient to use "special request envelopes," but those who only mail an occasional letter can avoid much trouble by *writing* a request to "return if not delivered," etc., on the envelope.

When dropping a letter, newspaper, etc., into a street letter-

box, or into the receptacle at a post office, always see that the packet falls into the box and does not stick in its passage; observe also, as a finality, whether the postage stamps remain securely in their places.

Postage stamps should be placed on the upper right hand corner of the address side of all mail matter.

Cut postage stamps, stamps cut from stamped envelopes, mutilated postage stamps, and internal revenue stamps, cannot be accepted in payment of postage. Letters deposited in a post office having such matter affixed are held for postage.

Postmasters are not obliged to accept in payment of postage stamps or stamped envelopes, wrappers, etc., any currency which may be so mutilated as to be uncurrent, or the genuineness of which cannot be clearly ascertained. They are not obliged to receive more than twenty-five cents in copper or nickel coins. They are not obliged to affix stamps to letters, nor are they obliged to make change except as a matter of courtesy. Neither should they give credit for postage.

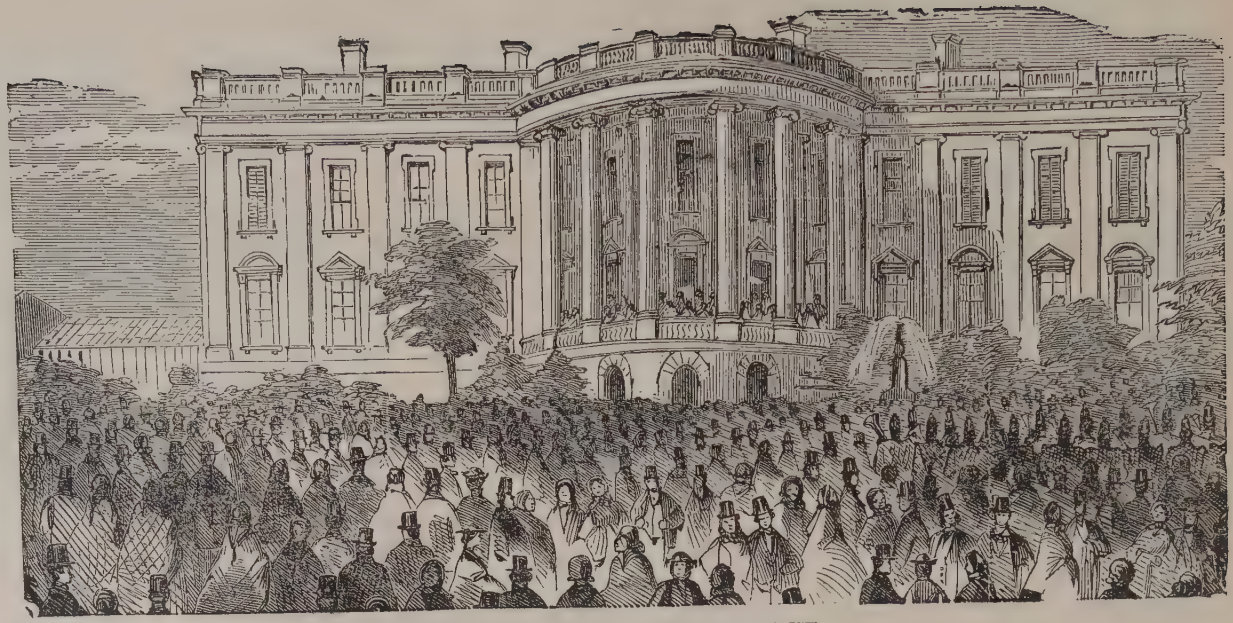
To use, or attempt to use, in payment of postage, a postage stamp or stamped envelope, or any stamp cut from any such stamped envelope which has been before used, in payment of postage, is punishable with a fine of fifty dollars.

In using postal cards, be careful not to write or have anything printed on the side to be used for the address, except the address; also be careful not to paste, gum, or attach anything to them. They are unmailable as postal cards when these suggestions are disregarded.

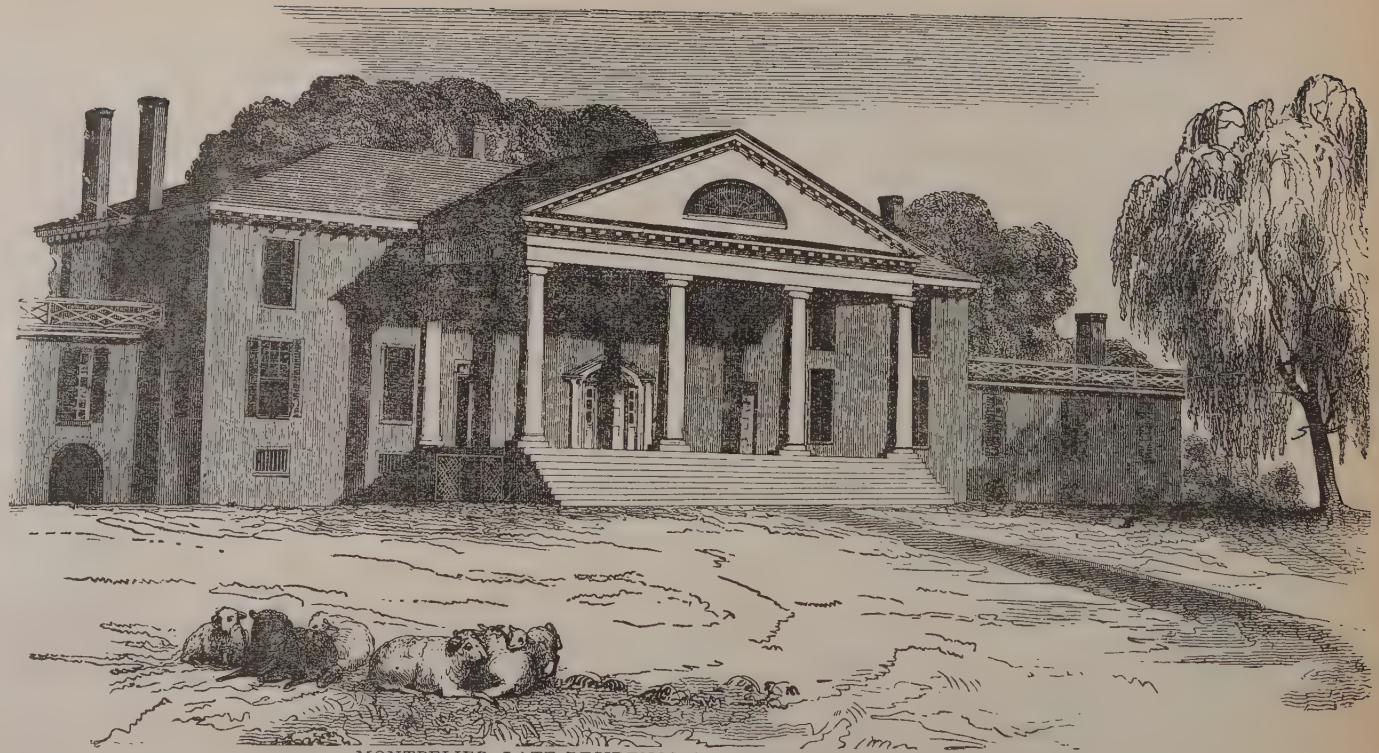
No card is a "postal card" except such as are issued by the Post Office Department. Cards issued by private parties as postal cards, containing any writing in addition to an address, are subject to letter postage.

To insure a letter being forwarded in the mails, it must have not less than three cents in postage stamps affixed. The word "Paid," endorsed on a letter, is not regarded at the office of delivery; letters so marked, and not having any stamp affixed, are treated as unpaid.

The double rate of six cents for each half ounce or fraction thereof, is chargeable on letters reaching their destination which



RECEPTION DAY AT THE WHITE HOUSE.



MONTPELIER, LATE RESIDENCE OF PRESIDENT MADISON. VIRGINIA.

have not had one full rate prepaid at the mailing office. If a one or two cent stamp has been affixed at the mailing office, the amount should be deducted.

Letters cannot be carried out of the mail except in postage-stamped envelopes. There is no objection to a person who is not acting as a common carrier, carrying a sealed letter, whether in a stamped envelope or not; but to continue the practice, or receive money for so doing, would subject the party to a penalty of one hundred and fifty dollars. Newspapers, magazines, and periodicals may be carried out of the mail for sale or distribution to subscribers, but if they are put into a post office for delivery, the postage must be paid thereon.

After a letter has passed from the mailing office, the delivering of it cannot be delayed, or prevented by the alleged writer; but if the writer thereof request the return of a letter placed in a post office which has not left in the mail, the postmaster may deliver it, provided he is furnished with proper evidence that the party applying is the writer, and if the application is made before the stamp is canceled, it may be returned without canceling the stamp.

When a letter carrier delivers a letter at a designated address, in the absence of any instructions to the postmaster to the contrary, it is a legal delivery, and such letter cannot be remailed except it is prepaid anew; but parties may insure their letters being forwarded without additional charge, by advising the postmaster in writing. To leave word with a hotel clerk, boarding-house keeper, or office clerk, cannot be accepted as a notice to the postmaster.

A subscriber to a newspaper or periodical who changes his residence and post office, should at once notify the publisher and have the publication sent to his new address.

Printed matter, merchandise and other third-class matter cannot be forwarded from the office to which it is addressed, unless the postmaster is furnished with postage at the rate of one cent for each ounce or fraction thereof, for such purpose. Neither can a postmaster regard a request to return endorsed on such matter, except he is furnished with postage as above. A request to return written on such matter would subject the packages to letter postage.

The delivering of letters is not controlled by any statutory pro-

vision, but by the rules and regulations of the Post Office Department; and the object of the Department is to insure and facilitate such delivery to the person for whom they are intended. In the case of money-orders and registered letters, the parties applying for them, if not known, should be required to prove their identity in the same manner as in banking institutions, where parties presenting drafts, checks, etc., who are not known, are required to prove their identity. In the case of advertised letters, parties applying should be questioned as to the place or places from whence they may be expecting correspondence. In the general delivery of a post office, the postmaster should exercise a sound discretion in the delivery of letters to persons claiming to be the persons named in the address, and who may not be known to him.

To enclose any written matter in printed matter subjects the mailing party to a fine of five dollars, unless the party addressed pays letter postage on the package.

When the mail does not arrive at a post office after closing Saturday night, or on Sunday, it is not necessary to keep the office open on Sunday; but when a mail arrives after closing on Saturday or on Sunday, the office should be kept open for one hour or more on Sunday after the arrival and assortment thereof, if the public convenience require it.

Letters addressed to initials or fictitious names are not deliverable, unless the address contains a designated place of delivery, thus: A letter addressed A. B., station G., New York, is not deliverable; but a letter addressed A. B., stating street and number, or a box number, is deliverable.

All packages mailed at less than letter rates of postage should be wrapped so that their contents can be readily ascertained without destroying the wrapper. Matter contained in sealed envelopes notched at the ends, defeats the object of the law, and is therefore made subject to letter postage.

Nothing whatever should be written on the contents, or on the covers of packages of third-class matter, but the address of destination, thus: —

Messrs. Jno. Doe & Co.,
Booksellers and Stationers,
998 Penna. Avenue,
Washington, D. C.

In the care of Messrs. John Jones & Co., may be also written, but to add the words "one newspaper," "printed matter," "from Richard Roe," or anything whatever, will subject such packages to letter postage. There is, however, no objection to a card printed or impressed on the wrapper, or to a mark on a newspaper calling attention to an article therein.

Samples may be marked in pencil or in ink, with letters or figures by which they may be distinguished in a descriptive letter, mailed at letter rates of postage, such marking not conflicting with the spirit of the law, which intends that no additional information that could be conveyed in writing should accompany matter passing at less than letter rates; but to mark a price thereon does convey additional intelligence, and would subject a package so marked to letter postage.

The postage on manuscript for magazines, periodicals and newspapers, is three cents for one half ounce, or fraction thereof. Manuscript music is also subject to letter postage.

Each post office box or drawer, in all post offices, is restricted to the use of one family, firm, or company, and the rent therefor must be paid at least one quarter in advance. A person renting a post office box is entitled to have the letters of his family, firm, or company, put into it. Letters addressed to his friends stopping temporarily with him, may also be placed in the box, if directed to his care or to the number of the box. But letters addressed to other persons residing in the same place, and living and doing business separate and apart from a box-holder, should *not* be placed in the box.

In every case of loss by mail, the Department should be immediately informed of all the circumstances connected with it, such as the name of the office in which the letter was posted and the date of mailing; whether by the writer himself or by another person; the names of the writer and the person addressed; the amount and a description of the inclosure; the office to which addressed; whether mailed direct or for distribution; if the latter, to what distributing office it was mailed; *and whether registered or unregistered*, with any other particulars that may aid in making a thorough investigation. Address communications on this sub-

ject, "Second Assistant Postmaster General, Division of Mail Depredations."

Only letters or matter subject to letter postage can be registered.

Packages of any description of mail matter may weigh not exceeding four pounds.

Packages of mutilated currency, addressed to the Treasurer of the United States for redemption, may be registered free of charge for registry, but the postage thereon must be prepaid at letter rates.

NEWSPAPER POSTAGE IN COUNTIES.

A letter of inquiry addressed to the General Post Office Department, in relation to the free circulation of newspapers through the mails in the counties in which they are printed, elicited the following reply:

POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, APPOINTMENT OFFICE,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

SIR: Your communication of the —— inst., respecting the *free mailing* of newspapers to *actual subscribers* in the county where the same are printed and published, has been received.

In reply, I have to say, that the law passed by Congress at the last session went into effect from the date of said enactment, except Secs. 5 and 6, so that newspapers, one copy to each *actual subscriber* residing within the county where the same are printed, in whole or in part, and published, shall go free through the mails, but the same shall not be delivered at letter-carrier offices, or distributed by carriers, unless postage is paid thereon, as by law required. Yours respectfully. JAMES H. MARR,

Acting First Asst. P. M. Gen'l.

FOREIGN MAILS.

The exchange of correspondence between the United States and foreign countries is regulated by postal treaties establishing the rates and conditions of exchange, or by and in pursuance of legislation by Congress.

The International Postal Treaty concluded at Berne, Switzerland, October 9, 1874, embraces, in the Postal Union established by it, the United States, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark (including Iceland and the Faroe Islands), Egypt, Spain (including the Belearic Isles, the Canary Islands, the Spanish possessions on the northern coast of Africa, and the postal establishments of Spain upon the western coast of Morocco*), Great Britain (including the island of Malta), Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway, The Netherlands, Portugal (including the island of Madeira and the Azores), Roumania, Russia (including the Grand Duchy of Finland), Servia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and France, and went into operation on July 1, 1875, except with France,—its operation, in the case of that country, having been suspended until January 1, 1876.†

The provisions of the treaty extend to letters, postal cards, newspapers, and other printed papers, stitched or bound books, pamphlets, music, visiting cards, catalogues, prospectuses, announcements, and notices of various kinds, whether printed, engraved, lithographed, or autographed, photographs, legal and commercial documents, and patterns of merchandise.

REGISTRATION of any of the above classes of correspondence is permissible, the postage payable on registered matter being the same as that on similar matter not registered.

PREPAYMENT OF POSTAGE on postal cards, registered matter, newspapers and other printed papers, is compulsory.

UNPAID LETTERS will be charged in the country of destination with double the rate for prepaid letters.

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* The Spanish possessions on the northern coast of Africa are, Ceuta, Penon de la Gomera, Alhucemas, Melilla and the Chafarine Islands. The postal establishments upon the western coast of Morocco are Tangier, Tetuan, Larrache, Rabat, Mazagan, Casa Blanca, Saffi, and Mogadore.

† Montenegro has been admitted into the Postal Union.

Newspapers and other printed papers unpaid or insufficiently prepaid cannot be forwarded.

Other articles unpaid or insufficiently prepaid will be charged on delivery as unpaid letters, after deducting the value of the stamps or stamped envelopes employed.

THE MAXIMUM WEIGHT for patterns of merchandise is two hundred and fifty grammes, or eight and three-fourths ounces, and the maximum weight of other articles, except letters, is one thousand grammes, or two pounds three ounces.

BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS, PRINTED PAPERS, and other similar articles, must be placed under bands, or in an envelope open, or simply folded so as to admit of easy examination, and must contain no manuscript writing, figure, or mark whatever, except as follows: —

Proofs of printing or of music may bear corrections made with the pen, relating exclusively to the text, or to the execution of the work, and the manuscript of the proofs may be annexed to them.

Circulars, notices, etc., may bear the signature of the sender, with his trade or profession, and may also indicate the place of origin and the date.

Books may bear a manuscript dedication, or a complimentary inscription from the author.

Passages in printed text to which it is desired to call attention, may be marked with a simple stroke of the pen.

Printed or lithographed stock and share lists, prices-current, and market reports may have the prices added in writing, or by means of any impression whatever.

No other manuscript additions are allowable, nor even those produced by typographical characters, if the latter tend to take from the packet its general character.

Such of the above-mentioned articles as shall not fulfill the foregoing conditions will be considered as unpaid letters, and charged accordingly, with the sole exception of newspapers, and printed papers, such as circulars, notices, etc., which will not be forwarded in such cases.

PATTERNS OF MERCHANDISE must be placed in bags, boxes, or envelopes, removable, so as to admit of easy examination. They must not have any saleable value, nor bear any manuscript writing

other than the name, the trade or profession of the sender, the address of the person for whom intended, a manufacturer's or trade mark, or numbers and prices.

It is forbidden to introduce these articles into a letter, or a packet of any other kind, save in the case in which they form an integral part of a particular work.

Patterns which do not conform to the requirements of the treaty will be charged as letters, except those which are valuable. The latter will not be forwarded, nor those the conveyance of which would be attended with risk or danger.

LEGAL AND COMMERCIAL DOCUMENTS, under the treaty, embrace acts and deeds of all kinds drawn up by public functionaries, invoices, the various documents on the service of insurance companies, copies or extracts of deeds under private seal, written upon stamped or unstamped paper, scores or sheets of manuscript music, and, in general, all manuscript papers and documents which have not the character of an actual and personal correspondence. Such documents must be sent under a movable band, and be made up so as to admit of easy examination. If not fulfilling the conditions above enumerated, packets of this character will be treated as unpaid letters, and charged accordingly.

ARTICLES EXCLUDED FROM THE MAILS.

The treaty prohibits the transmission, in a letter or other packet sent by mail, of gold or silver money, jewels or precious articles, or any article liable to customs duty.

FOR RATES OF POSTAGE under the treaty, see the table of foreign postage in this book.

POSTAL CARDS.

The object of postal cards is to facilitate letter correspondence and provide for the transmission through the mails, at a reduced rate of postage, of short communications, either printed or written in pencil or ink. They may therefore be used for orders, invitations, notices, receipts, acknowledgments, price-lists, and other requirements of business and social life; and the matter desired to be conveyed may be either in writing or in print, or partially in both.

In their treatment as mail matter, they are to be regarded by postmasters the same as sealed letters, and not as printed matter,

except that in no case will unclaimed cards be returned to the writers or sent to the Dead Letter office. If not delivered within sixty days from the time of receipt, they will be burned by postmasters.

The postage of one cent each is paid by the stamp impressed on these cards, and no further payment is required.

No card is a "postal card" except such as are issued by the Post Office Department. An ordinary *printed* business card may be sent through the mails when prepaid by a one-cent postage stamp attached; but such card must contain absolutely *no written matter except the address;* otherwise it will be treated as not fully prepaid, and refused admission into the mails.

In using postal cards, be careful not to write or have anything printed on the side to be used for the address, except the address; also be careful not to paste, gum, or attach anything to them. They are unmailable as postal cards when these suggestions are disregarded.

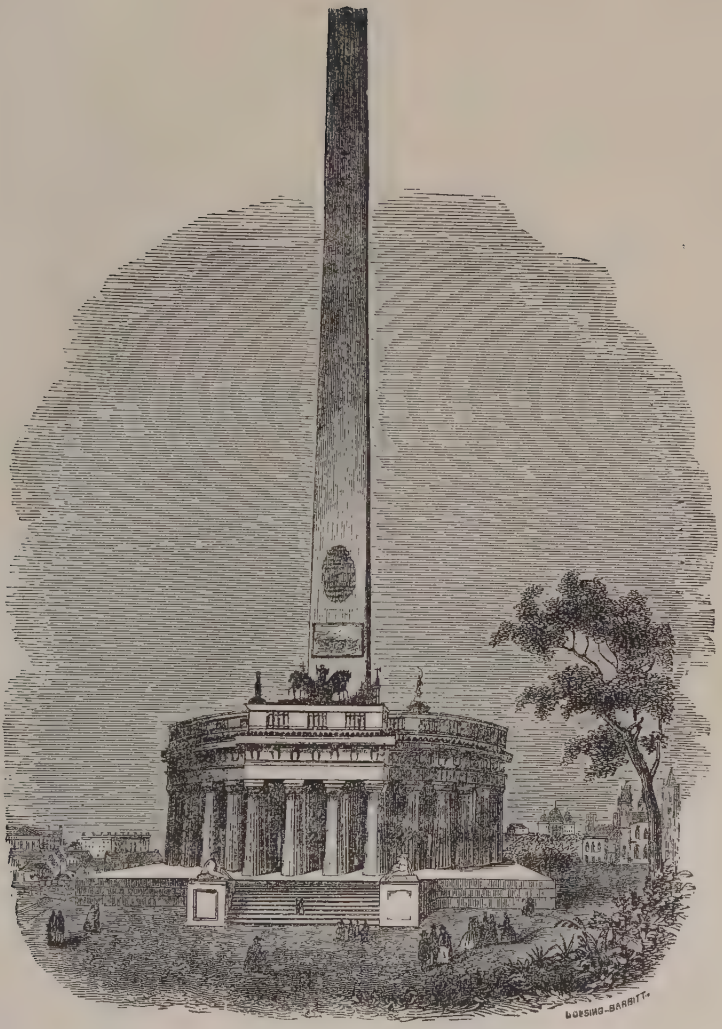
THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES ARE UNMAILABLE.

Packages containing liquids, poisons, glass, explosive chemicals, live animals, sharp pointed instruments, sugar, or any other matter liable to deface or destroy the contents of the mail, or injure the person of any one connected with the service. All letters upon the envelope of which, or postal card upon which obscene, scurrilous, or abusive epithets have been written or printed, or disloyal devices printed or engraved, and letters or circulars concerning illegal lotteries so called, gift concerts, or other similar enterprises offering prizes, or concerning schemes devised and intended to deceive and defraud the public. Also, all obscene, lewd, or lascivious books, pamphlets, pictures, papers, prints, or other publications of an indecent character.

MONEY ORDERS.

Postal conventions for the exchange of money orders have been concluded with the following foreign countries, viz.: Switzerland, Great Britain and Ireland, and Germany.

The exchange of money orders between the United States and each of the countries mentioned, is effected through the agency of "International Exchange Offices," of which New York is the



WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

GORE HALL, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

office on the part of the United States. Hence, an international money order cannot be drawn by a postmaster in either country directly upon a postmaster in the other, but must be drawn upon the international exchange office.

The postmaster at any foreign money order office in the United States — the same being designated by the Postmaster General — will furnish a blank form of application, on which the sender must enter all the particulars of the amount (in United States money), names, address, etc., and must state the *full name* and *exact residence* of the person to whom the order is to be made payable. The postmaster will then issue an international order on the postmaster at New York, giving all the particulars furnished in the application, and transmit the same, together with the coupon.

The certificate attached to each order will, by the issuing postmaster, be given to the sender, the same serving as his receipt; but no "advice" will be issued, as in domestic money orders, inasmuch as the order itself, instead of being delivered to the applicant for transmission, is forwarded directly to New York.

The postmaster at New York, upon the receipt of a foreign money order from a United States office, will certify the same to the foreign international exchange office, through which payment is then made to the proper party. The coupon attached to the order will, by the postmaster at New York, be returned to the issuing office for the information of the sender, and will state the exact amount transmitted, and other particulars.

As the value of gold varies in the United States, the postmaster at the issuing office must not fill up, and cannot give the sender the *exact* value of the order in foreign money; but this must be left to the postmaster at New York.

Upon the receipt of a certificate from a foreign international exchange office, the postmaster at New York draws an international money order on the foreign money order office nearest to the residence of the person who is to receive the money, and the postmaster at the latter office notifies the person, who, on applying for the same, will, on due identification, receive payment and sign a receipt.

One pound sterling (£1) is equal in value to $4.86 in gold, and one thaler (German) is equal to 71 cents gold.

One dollar (gold) is equal to 5 francs 15 centimes (Swiss).

POSTAL MONEY ORDER SYSTEM

How to Obtain Money Orders.—Orders may be given at any office authorized to transact this business, for one dollar up to fifty dollars. The following blank, with explanatory notes which accompany it, gives a very plain idea of the process by which orders may be obtained:

Application for Money Order.

(To be filled by the applicant.)

No.—, Amount, $——.

Date.——, ——, 186—.

Money Order.

Required for the sum of $——, payable at——, State of——, Payable to——, residing at——, State of——. Sent by—— residing at——, State of——. Entered in register.

————————, Postmaster.

Note.—The applicant must, in all cases give his own Christian name in full; and when the Christian name of the payee is known, it should be so stated; otherwise initials may be used. The Christian names of married women must be given, and not those of their husbands.

Names of parties and places, and the sums, to be written in the plainest possible manner.

As there are several places of the same name in the United States, remitters must be careful to indicate which of them they mean; and the Postmaster will satisfy himself before writing out the order, that the place indicated is the one intended.

On the back of the application are the rates of commission, as follows:

RATES OF COMMISSION CHARGED FOR MONEY ORDERS.

On orders not exceeding $20—10 cents. Over $20 and not exceeding $50—25 cents.

No single order issued for less than $1 or more than $50; and no fraction of cents to be introduced in an order. No orders to be issued on credit.

These orders are only payable by the Postmaster at the office upon which it is drawn. Payment of all orders should be obtained before the expiration of ninety days from the date of issue.

The Post-Office Department will not be responsible for the payment of claims already collected, no matter who presents the order, and if the official forms be mutilated in any way, there may be difficulty in obtaining payment.

Instructions are endorsed on the back of each order, which will enable parties to proceed in the business intelligently.

FOREIGN POSTAGE.

	Letters, ½ oz. or Fraction.	Newspapers, 4 ounces.
	Cts.	Cts.
AUSTRIA—via North German Union, direct	*5	2
do crossed mail, via England	*6	4
AUSTRALIA—Victoria, (Port Philip,) Brit. Mail via Southampton	†17	6
do via Marseilles	22	10
do via San Francisco	‡10	2
ASPINWALL	5	2
BELGIUM and the NETHERLANDS	‡5	2
BRAZIL—via England	27	4
do via Am. packet, monthly from N. Y	15	2
CANADA—Dominion of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, [letters, if unpaid, 10 cts.]	3	1
CHINA—American packet, via San Francisco	10	2
do French mail	19	2
do British mail (except Hong Kong) via Southampton	33	8
do (except Hong Kong) via Marseilles	‖36	3
do via North German Union, direct	24	12
do closed mail via England	27	13
CHILI—British mail via Panama	17	4
CUBA	5	2
CONSTANTINOPLE—via N. German Union, direct	*12	7
do closed mail via England	*15	8
do via England	28	‡6
DENMARK—via N. German Union direct (if prepaid, 9 cts.)	*5	2
do closed mail via England, (prepared, 10 cts.)	*13	7
EAST INDIES—British mail via Southampton	21	‡4
do via Marseilles	28	10
do N. German Union direct	24	12
do closed mail via England	27	
do via San Francisco	10	2
EGYPT—(Lower, excluding Alexandria,) via N. German Union direct	*17	9
do (Lower, excluding Alexandria,) via England	*20	10
FRANCE—Direct mail	5	2
do via England	4	

FRANKFORT—via North German Union, direct	*7	3
do via N. German Union, closed mail via Eng	*10	4
GERMAN STATES—via North German Union, direct	†5	2
do via North Ger. Un. closed mail via England, including Baden, Hanover, Hamburg, Bremen, Brunswick, Saxe Allenburg, Saxe Coburg, Gotha, Meinengen, Weimar, Saxony, Schleiswig, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Wirtemburg, Cuxhaven, Bavaria, Lubec, Luxemburg	*7	4
GREAT BRITIAN—Including England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland	*5	2
☞For every newspaper not exceeding 4 oz. in weight, 2 cts.		
HOLLAND	*5	2
do via Bremen or Hamburg	*10	
HONDURAS		
Belize, British Honduras, American packet, via New Orleans	*12	2
HONG KONG—via Southampton	28	6
do via Marseilles	36	8
American Packet via San Francisco	10	2
HUNGARY—See Austria.		
ITALY—via North German Union, direct	*11	7
do closed mail, via England	*14	8
do closed mail	*5	2
JAPAN—British mail, via Southampton	27	4
do British mail, via Marseilles	34	10
MEXICO—Direct from New York	10	2
NASSAU—N. P. Steamers direct from N. Y.	3	2
NORWAY—via N. German Un. direct, if paid, 11 cents	5	2
do Closed mail via England, 12 cts	15	9
NOTE—Small newspapers under 2 oz. 6 cts. each by direct mail, 7 cts. by closed mail via England.		
NETHERLANDS	*5	2
NEWFOUNDLAND	6	2
PRUSSIA—via North German Union direct	6	3
do do closed mail via England	7	4
SWEDEN—via North German Union direct, if prepaid, 10c	5	2
do do closed mail via England, pre-paid, 11c	16	9
NOTE—Small newspapers under 2 oz., 6 cts. each by direct mail and 7 cts. by closed mail via England.		

* Indicates that in cases where it is prefixed, unless the letter be registered prepayment is optional; in all other cases prepayment is required.

† Double the prepaid rates must be collected on all unpaid letters.

‡ Prepayment compulsory.

‖ The book and pattern post to Egypt via British mail extends only to Alexandria, Cairo and Suez.

THE REPORT OF POSTMASTER GENERAL JEWELL,

"December, 1875, shows, among other things, that the ordinary receipts of the department during the last fiscal year were $26,671,218.50; an increase of $299,344.80 over the receipts of 1874, being less than the estimate made in 1873 by $1,809,331. To the ordinary receipts should be added the sum of $650,000, subsidies to steamship lines, drawn from the general treasury and expended, and $120,141.09, revenue from ordinary order business, making the

receipts from all sources $27,441,360.57. The expenditures of all kinds were $33,611,309.45, an increase of $1,484,894.87 over those for 1874, and less than the amount estimated in 1873 by $318,603. The amount drawn from the general treasury under appropriations to meet deficiencies was $6,054,646.96, from which should be deducted the sum of $1,338,319.50, referred to in a previous paragraph, which will leave, as the legitimate amount drawn on account of the past fiscal year, $4,716,329.46, against $5,259,933.55 for the fiscal year of 1873–1874—a difference in favor of 1875 of $543,606.09.

THE MONEY ORDER DEPARTMENT,

The annual transactions of which have reached about eighty millions of dollars, shows an apparent profit of about $120,000, though it is really in arrears more than that sum if the clerk hire and stationery required for business, and now charged against the postal revenues, were transferred to this account, where they properly belong. The money order business is nothing more or less than government banking for the benefit of the public, and those who avail themselves of its benefits should pay its current expenses. Congress at the last session advanced the fees on small money orders to a point at which it is believed it will, as it should for the current year and hereafter, pay its own expenses."

WHAT CONSTITUTES A STATE?

What constitutes a State?
Not high-raised battlements or labored mound,
Thick wall, or moated gate;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-bound baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No:—men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den.
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude:
Men, who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain:
These constitute a State;
And sovereign law, that State's collected will,
O'er thrones and globes elate,
Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill.

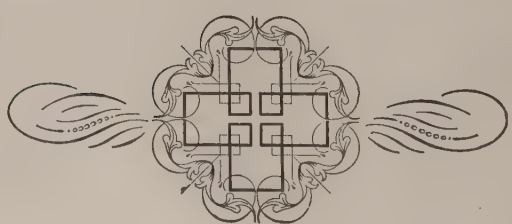
MOTTOES OF THE UNITED STATES

AND OF

INDIVIDUAL STATES.

UNITED STATES. *E Pluribus Unum.* One of many.
ALABAMA.....[No motto.]
ARKANSAS.....*Regnant Populi.* The people rule.
CALIFORNIA....*Eureka.* I have found it.
CONNECTICUT. { *Qui transtulit sustinet.* He who brought us hither will preserve us.
DELAWARE ....Liberty and independence.
FLORIDA.....In God is our trust.
GEORGIA.....Wisdom, justice and moderation.
ILLINOIS .....State sovereignty and national union.
INDIANA.....[No motto.]
IOWA..... { Our liberties we prize, and our rights we will maintain.
KENTUCKY.....United we stand, divided we fall.
LOUISIANA.....Union and confidence.
MAINE .....*Dirigo.* I take the lead.
MASSACHUSETTS { *Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem.* By her sword she seeks the calm repose of liberty.
MARYLAND ....Industry the means, and plenty the result.
MICHIGAN..... { *Si quaeris peninsulam amœnam circumspice.* If thou seekest a beautiful peninsula, behold it here.
MISSOURI..... { *Salus populi suprema lex esto.* The welfare of the people is the first great law.
MISSISSIPPI.....[No motto.]
N. CAROLINA...[No motto.]
N. HAMPSHIRE..[No motto.]

NEW JERSEY.....Liberty and independence.
NEW YORK.....*Excelsior.* Higher.
OHIO.....*Imperium in imperio.* An empire within an empire.
PENNSYLVANIA. Virtue, liberty and independence.
RHODE ISLAND. In God we hope.
S. CAROLINA... *Animus Opibusque Parati.* Ever ready with our lives and property.
TENNESSEE ....[No motto.]
TEXAS .....[No motto.]
VERMONT .....Liberty and Independence.
VIRGINIA.....*Sic semper tyrannis.* So be it ever to tyrants.
MINNESOTA....*L'Etoile du Nord.* The Star of the North.
WISCONSIN..... *Civilitas successit barbarum.* Civilized life takes place of savage.
KANSAS ..... *Ad astra per aspera.* By rugged ways (we ascend) to the stars.
OREGON.....*Alis volat propriis.* She sails with her own wings.
WEST VIRGINIA *Montani semper liberi.* The mountains are always free.
NEBRASKA.....*Popular Sovereignty.*
NEVADA.....*Volens et potens.* Willing and able.
COLORADO.....*Nil sine Numine.* Nothing without Divine aid.



THE ANCIENT WINSLOW HOUSE, AT MARSHFIELD, MASS,

THE OLD BILLOP HOUSE, AT BENTLEY, WEST END STATEN ISLAND.

THE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF VOTERS.

IN a Republican form of Government, every act and feature of our laws is traceable directly to those who by their votes enacted them, or indirectly to those who by their neglect to vote suffered the passage of a bad or injudicious bill and allowed it to become a statute, and thus wronged thousands, and disgraced the country. We say, boastingly, that the "right of suffrage" is extended to every citizen of the United States, but the term, as applied to the citizens of a Republic, is a contradiction, meaning as it does, *permission* from the ruling power thus to do—when the very significance of our form of government is proof that it is as much the birthright of every citizen as is the air he breathes. The declaration that "all men are created free and equal," gives no man an inherited supremacy over another, either social or political, and imposes certain duties upon every one, duties that are inseparable from his citizenship.

A republican government is a contract or compact between the people for mutual protection, defense and security, and since every citizen derives actual and positive benefit from this protection it is impossible but that he has duties to perform and obligations to meet. It is not practicable, of course, for the people to assemble in masses and give instructions to the Chief Executive personally; hence, conventions are called, at which some one who is known to be honest and faithful to the interests of the commonwealth, and especially of the district he represents, is nominated, and afterwards elected to meet the general assembly of representatives, at which the wants, wishes or demands of the people are made known, and such measures adopted as shall most easily and speedily carry them out.

It is at the polls that our republican principles are most clearly shown, and that every man is the peer of his fellows. His vote is the expression of his views, and the strongest manner in which he can declare his approval or disapproval of men or measures. A selfish consideration of party interests, or a reckless strife for power at the cost of principle, or a narrow personal prejudice indulged to the extent of the sacrifice of the interests of the country, is unworthy of men to whom so much has been entrusted. The candid citizen will hold himself aloof from and above all unworthy motives, and, not narrowing his vision to the things of to-day, will act with wise reference to the good of his country, and the safety and prosperity of generations to come. He will study well and carefully the principles of both or all the political parties of the times—study and understand thoroughly the platform of his own party, to be sure it is right, and be able in every possible way to aid it and secure its success, and he will be equally familiar with the platform of the party he opposes, to know if it is wrong, where it is wrong, in what way injurious to the country, and how he can best work to defeat it. No man has a moral right to give his vote to advance a measure that he knows is wrong, or that he does not surely know is right. It is a lamentable fact that men rush to the ballot box and deposit their votes by thousands, when a large majority are so ignorant of the first elements of their duty as scarcely to know to which party the man for whom they have voted belongs, and to know nothing—absolutely *nothing*, of what his life has been, or whether he has any real claim upon them for support or merit which qualifies him for the office he is being elected to. This can not be justified in a country like our own, and is little, if any, less than guilt.

We are far from asking that every man be a professional politician, but that, knowing from his boyhood that he will one day be called upon to take this position, and that he cannot avoid a citizen's responsibilities, however he may neglect a citizen's duties, he prepare himself to discharge them honorably, conscientiously, and in the fear of God, rather than man. In voting, a man can not confine the consequences of his act to himself, but it extends to all who come under the influence of those whom he helps to elect.

It is no proof that a man should be placed in office because he asks it, and no proof that he is qualified to discharge its duties

because he assures you, with his hand upon his heart, that he will do so. Be guided by candor in this matter rather than impulse; remember that you hold the motive power and wield it for good or evil. All political statements should be made with a just and careful regard to the influence they will exert, and honor, no less than Christianity, demands courtesy from party to party, as from man to man. Keep your manhood unsullied and your soul unspotted with the low, base, treasonable designs of those who will build up on the ruins of patriotism and principle a fictitious glory for themselves or their cause. It may shine for a season, but it will end in darkness. It may triumph to-day but will be cut down to-morrow, and the disgrace and dishonor will fall upon all who were engaged in its upbuilding. No ranker, baser crime is known in civil society than treason, and a political traitor, whether impelled to the act by cowardice or love of gain, is a criminal of the most contemptible sort.

There is nothing that prepares a man more thoroughly for the active duties of life than a careful study of human nature and a close observation of the relative position of facts as presented by all parties, and the more one reflects and reasons the better he is prepared to act. No people can remain free who are ignorant. Knowledge as surely constitutes power as light constitutes day; a community in ignorance is a community in degradation. A man who allows himself to remain uninformed upon political subjects and matters of interest to voters and citizens, must needs expect to be the dupe and tool of those who are stronger and more designing than themselves. A man may be honest, but if he is far behind the age in which he lives, his very honesty will subject him to imposition, and with his tin sword rusty in its scabbard, he is no match for the man whose sword of Damascus steel is bright and keen from constant use. If it were only for your own interest—if the welfare of none others had been entrusted to you, it would still be best that you cultivate your knowledge, both general and special, upon everything which concerns you as a citizen and a voter.

Another point of vital interest is, that you have no right to be careless or indifferent upon these matters. You have no right to sit down and fold your hands while the battle between right and wrong wages around you, and say it matters not who is victorious.

You have no right to close your eyes to danger that threatens your country and say you are neutral; for be sure neutrality is either cowardice, treason, or ignorance; and society, both social, religious, and political, has far more to dread from an army of neutrals than from an army who throw their colors to the breeze and declare the ground on which they have taken their stand. Never forget for one moment, whether you be leader or private in the army, that *the majority rule*, and that if the majority is on the side of wrong, wrong will triumph. Study not only to throw the weight of your vote on the side of right, but throw your influence there, with all the strength and force you can gather. The people have it in their power to rule for good. Woe to that nation where ignorance has covered the land with mourning and her sons have sold their birthright of liberty for a dish of pottage, and see an usurper wear the glory that was their heritage, without a sigh or pang of regret.

To the voters of America is entrusted the holiest treasure that man was ever enjoined to guard—the liberty of our country and the protection of our republican principles and institutions. How well it has been preserved in the past, the proud position which she holds in the rank of nations tells more eloquently than written or spoken words. Whether we shall go on from victory to victory, crowned more and still more royally with the luster of great deeds, until she shall be a light to the nations who sit in darkness, depends upon you who hold in your hands the power to make her what you will, and whose votes must decide her destiny.

PENSION LAWS.

PENSIONS for officers, soldiers and sailors disabled in the service, and for the widows and children of officers, soldiers and sailors who have died in the service, have been liberally and carefully provided by Congress.

The proper officials to whom all applications should be made, by letter or petition, in Washington, are, by a soldier having his discharge, to the Paymaster General; when the discharge paper is lost, to the second Auditor of the Treasury; when by those who represent a deceased person, to the second Auditor of the Treasury; when for commutation of rations, to the same officer; when for pensions, or any matter connected with pensions, to the Commissioner of Pensions.

Instructions have been prepared for all applicants, by the Commissioner of Pensions for the purpose of preventing fraud or misunderstanding. They are, in substance:

INSTRUCTIONS.

By the act of Congress approved July 14th, 1862, and amendatory acts, pensions are granted as follows:

1. Invalids, disabled in the military or naval service of the United States, in the line of duty

2. Widows of persons who have been killed or have died in the military or naval service of the United States.

3. Children under sixteen, of the classes of persons on account of whose death widows are entitled; provided said widows have died, or have remarried.

4. Mothers of all classes of persons on account of whose death widows are entitled, provided said mothers were dependent on the deceased for support and no minor child survived.

5. Fathers, the same as mothers, in case of the death of the latter.

6. Brothers and sisters, under sixteen, provided they were dependent for support upon the person on account of whose decease they claim.

The First Section of the Act of July 14th, 1862, showing the rates of pension to the several classes and grades, is as follows:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That if any officer, non-commissioned officer, musician, or private of the army, including regulars, volunteers, militia, or any officer, warrant, or petty officer, musician, seaman, ordinary seaman, flotillaman, marine, clerk, landsman, pilot, or other person in the navy or marine corps, has been, since the fourth day of March, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, or shall hereafter be, disabled by reason of any wound received or disease contracted while in the service of the United States, and in the line of duty, he shall, upon making due proof of the fact according to such forms and regulations as are or may be provided by, or in pursuance of law, be placed upon the list of invalid pensions of the United States, and be entitled to receive, for the highest rate of disability, such pension as is hereinafter provided in such cases, and for an inferior disability an amount proportionate to the highest disability, to commence as hereinafter provided, and continue during the existence of such disability. The pension for a total disability for officers, non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates employed in the military service of the United States, whether regulars, volunteers, or militia, and in the marine corps, shall be as follows, viz.: lieutenant-colonel and all officers of a higher rank, thirty dollars per month; major, twenty-five dollars per month; captain twenty dollars per month; first lieutenant, seventeen dollars per month; second lieutenant, fifteen dollars per month; and non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates, eight dollars per month. The pension for total disability for officers, warrant, or petty officers, and others employed in the naval service of the United States, shall be as follows, viz.: captain, commander, surgeon, paymaster, and chief engineer, respectively, ranking with commander by law, lieutenant commanding, and master commanding, thirty dollars per month; lieutenant, surgeon, paymaster, and chief engineer, respectively, ranking with lieutenant by law, and passed assistant surgeon, twenty-five dollars per month; professor of mathematics,

master, assistant surgeon, assistant paymaster, and chaplain, twenty dollars per month; first assistant engineer and pilots, fifteen dollars per month; passed midshipman, midshipman, captain's paymaster's clerk, second and third assistant engineers, master's mate, and all warrant officers, ten dollars per month; all petty officers, and all other persons before named employed in the naval service, eight dollars per month; and all commissioned officers, of either service, shall receive such and only such pension as is herein provided for the rank in which they hold commissions.

Act of July 4, 1864.

Various Supplementary Acts have been passed by the Act of July 14, 1862, modifying in some particulars the provisions of previous legislation.

By the Act of July 4, 1864, it is provided that biennial examinations will hereafter be made by one surgeon only, if he is regularly appointed, or holds a surgeon's commission in the army. Examinations by unappointed civil surgeons will not be accepted, unless it can be shown that an examination by a commissioned or duly appointed surgeon is impracticable.

Increased Pensions in Certain Cases.—A pension of twenty-five dollars per month is granted to those having lost both hands or both eyes in the military service of the United States, in the line of duty, and twenty dollars per month to those who, under the same conditions, shall have lost both feet, if such parties were entitled to a lower rate of pension under the act of 1862. This higher pension will date only from the 4th day of July, 1864, in case of pensioners already enrolled, or of applicants discharged prior to that date.

Evidence of Muster-in.—In accordance with the 11th Section of the Act of July 4, 1864, evidence of the muster-in of the soldier will not be required in any case, but there must be positive record evidence of service. Evidence of muster-in in the case of commissioned officers is still required.

Act of June 6, 1866.

The Supplementary Pension Act, approved June six, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, provides increased rates of pensions over those granted by the Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, in the following cases, viz.:

1. Twenty-five dollars per month to all those invalids entitled, under the Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, to a lower rate of pension, on account of service rendered since March four, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, "who shall have lost the sight of both eyes, or who shall have lost both hands, or been permanently and totally disabled in the same, or otherwise so permanently and totally disabled as to render them utterly helpless, or so nearly so as to require the constant personal aid and attendance of another person."

2. Twenty dollars per month to those invalids who, being entitled under like conditions to a lower rate of pension, "shall have lost both feet, or one hand and one foot, or been totally and permanently disabled in the same, or otherwise so disabled as to be incapacitated for performing any manual labor, but not so much so as to require constant personal aid and attention."

3. Fifteen dollars per month to those invalids who, under like conditions, "shall have lost one hand or one foot, or been totally and permanently disabled in the same, or otherwise so disabled as to render their inability to perform manual labor equivalent to the loss of a hand or a foot."

In order to obtain the benefits of the foregoing provisions, pensioners already enrolled will file an application in accordance with form F, appended hereto. Proof in addition to that on file with the previous application need not be forwarded, except as shall be specially required in each case, after the application is received. The applicant need only be examined by a pension surgeon when expressly required, on due notice from this office. Applicants not already pensioned, who believe themselves entitled to the benefit of the foregoing provisions, will specifically set forth such claim in their declarations, carefully stating the nature of the disability on account of which such higher rate of pension is claimed. The declaration must be made before some officer of a court of record, or before a pension notary designated by this office, as provided by the third section of the act of July four, eighteen hundred and sixty-four.

CHICAGO IN 1820.

CITY HORSE RAILWAY.

The above specified increased rates of pension will be allowed only to those disabled since the fourth day of March, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, and will date only from the sixth day of June, eighteen hundred and sixty-six.

Teamsters, Artificers, and other Enlisted Men,—not embraced in the terms of the Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, or of Acts supplementary thereto, are, by the tenth section of the Act of June six, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, included in the administration of the pension laws, in the class of non-commissioned officers and privates.

Minor Children to be Pensioned, in Certain Cases, instead of the Widow.—The eleventh section provides that when any widow, entitled to a pension under previous Acts, has abandoned the care of a child or children of her deceased husband, under sixteen years of age, "or is an unsuitable person, by reason of immoral conduct, to have the custody of the same," the pension shall be paid to the duly authorized guardian of such child or children, while under the age of sixteen years, and not to the widow. The proper proof in such case, as provided by this section, is the certificate of the judge of any court having probate jurisdiction, "that satisfactory evidence has been produced before such court" to the effect above indicated. In presenting an application under this section, the guardians of the minor child or children will make a declaration in accordance with the appended form G.

Pensions Granted to Dependent Fathers and to Dependent Orphan Brothers.—By the twelfth section the provisions of the Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, are extended so as to include the dependent brother or brothers of a deceased officer, soldier or seaman, and the dependent father of such deceased persons, under like limitations as apply in the case of dependent sisters and mothers; but not more than one pension is granted on account of the same person, or to more than one of said classes. The forms prescribed for the latter cases may be used, with obvious variations, in applications made by dependent fathers or on behalf of dependent brothers.

Limitations as to Number and Date of Pensions.—The thirteenth section declares that but one pension shall be granted to any person at the same time; and that when application is not made within three years after the death or discharge of the party on

whose account a pension is claimed, such pension, if allowed, "shall commence from the date of filing the last paper in said case by the party prosecuting the same." This limitation applies to all classes of pensions.

Evidence of Marriage of Colored Applicants.—The fourteenth section provides that habitual recognition of the marriage relation between colored parties—that is, in the absence of the usually required proof—when shown by "proof satisfactory to the Commissioner of Pensions," shall be accepted as evidence of marriage and the children of such parties shall be regarded as if born in lawful wedlock. When the usual proof of marriage can be furnished, it will be required as heretofore. When only evidence of cohabitation and mutual recognition can be adduced, as provided in this section, the testimony of two credible and disinterested witnesses will be required, who must state how long they have been personally acquainted with the parties, and for how long a period the latter are known to have recognized each other as man and wife. If such acquaintance is deemed to be of too recent date to warrant the acceptance of this testimony, or if there is reason to doubt, in any instance, that the marriage relation existed in good faith, more specific instructions will be issued, adapted to the circumstances of the particular case.

Act of July 25, 1866.

Provost Marshals, Enrolling Officers, and others Entitled to the Benefits of the Pension Laws.—The first section of the Act of July twenty-five, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, extends the benefits conferred by the pension laws to provost marshals, deputy provost marshals, and enrolling officers disabled in the line of their official duty as such, and to the widows or dependents of such officers in like manner.

Declarations will be made in accordance with the instructions issued under the Pension Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and supplementary Acts. The grade of such officers, for the purpose of determining the rates of pensions under this section, is fixed as follows: Provost marshals will rank as captains; their deputies as first lieutenants; and enrolling officers as second lieutenants.

Increased Pensions to Widows, and Orphan Children Under Sixteen Years of Age.—The second section of this act allows to those who are or shall be pensioned as widows of soldiers or sailors two dollars per month additional pension for each child (under sixteen years of age) of the deceased soldier or sailor by the widow thus pensioned.

On the death or remarriage of such widow, or on the denial of a pension to her, in accordance with the provisions of section eleven of the Act of June six, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, the same amount to which she would otherwise be entitled, under this and previous provisions, is allowed to the minor children. The number and names of the children, with their ages, must be proved by the affidavits of two credible and disinterested witnesses. The provisions of this section only include the children of the widow, and not those of her deceased husband by a previous marriage. The widows of minor children of officers are not entitled to this increase. Declarations for an increase under this section, if for the widow, will be made in accordance with form H, appended hereto; and if for minor children, according to form I. The pension certificate must be sent with all applications filed subsequently to September four, eighteen hundred and sixty-six.

Increase of Pensions under Acts prior to July 4, 1862.—All pensioners under Acts approved prior to July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, are, by the third section of the present act, granted the same rights as those pensioned under acts approved at or since that date, so far as said Acts may be applicable, with the exception of soldiers of the Revolution or their widows. This section applies only to pensioners who were such at the date of the approval of this Act.

Declaration of claimants under this section will be made in accordance with the forms previously issued under Act of July fourteen, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and subsequent pension acts, with the necessary modifications, and the pension certificates will be returned.

Invalid Pensions of Claimants Dying while their Applications are Pending, the Evidence being Completed.—The fourth section of this act is construed in connection with the tenth section of the Act of July four, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and the sixth sec-

tion of the Act of June six, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, to which it is supplementary. If an applicant for invalid pension dies while his claim is pending, the evidence having been completed, the pension, under the provisions of this section and of those sections of previous acts above referred to, is disposed of as follows:

1. If he left a widow, or minor child, or children under sixteen years of age, or other dependent relatives, and died of wounds received or of disease contracted in the service or in the line of duty, no invalid pension certificate will issue, but such widow or dependent relatives will receive a pension, in their own right, taking precedence in the order prescribed by law in other cases.

2. If the claimant left a widow or dependent relatives, but did not die of wounds received, or disease contracted in the service and in the line of duty, so that neither widow nor dependent relatives would be entitled to a pension on his account, then the certificate will be issued in his name, and the pension paid to the widow or to the dependent relatives, as the case may be, in the same order in which they would have been pensioned, if entitled, as set forth in the preceding paragraph.

3. If the claimant left no widow or dependent relatives, the certificate will issue in his name, and the pension will be drawn by his executor or administrator.

Certain Accrued Rights Reserved under Repealed Enactments.—The fifth section reserves all rights that may have accrued under the fifth section of the pension Act of July four, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and the third section of the pension Act of March three, eighteen hundred and sixty-five, though repealed by the first section of the Act of June six, eighteen hundred and sixty-six.

Widows Remarrying while their Claims are Pending,—Are entitled, under the sixth section, if their claims are otherwise valid, to receive pensions to the date of remarriage, if the deceased officer, soldier or sailor, on whose account they claim, left no legitimate child under sixteen years of age.

JOSEPH H. BARRETT,
Commissioner of Pensions.

PENSION OFFICE, August 4, 1866.

Act of July 27, 1868.

Section 1.—*Dependent Relatives.*—In this section precedence is given to the dependent relatives hereinafter mentioned, in the following order, to wit: First, mothers; secondly, fathers; thirdly, orphan brothers and sisters under sixteen, who shall be pensioned jointly; and the persons enumerated shall each be entitled in their order, after the death of the one preceding.

Sect. 2.—*Invalids disabled Subsequent to Passage of this Act.*—This section specifies as to pensions by reason of disabilities incurred subsequent to the passage of this Act, and enumerates the circumstances under which said disabilities must have been contracted.

Sect. 3.—*Unclaimed Pensions.*—This section provides that pensions remaining unclaimed for fourteen months after the same have become due, shall be adjusted at the Pension Agency instead of at the Office of the Third Auditor; and the failure of any pensioner to claim his or her pension for *three* years, shall be deemed presumptive evidence that the same has legally terminated. On a new application, with evidence satisfactorily accounting for such failure, the pensioner may be restored to the rolls.

Sect. 4.—*Increase of Pensions of Widows and of Children by a Former Wife.*—This section gives an increase of two dollars per month for each minor child of a deceased soldier, to commence from the death of their father, and continue until they severally attain the age of sixteen years; and provides that the children of a former marriage shall be "entitled to receive two dollars per month, to commence from the death of their father, and continue until they severally attain the age of sixteen years, to be paid to the guardian of such child or children for their use and benefit: *Provided, however*, That in all cases where such widow is charged with the care, custody, and maintenance of such child or children, the said sum of two dollars per month for each of said children shall be paid to her for and during the time she is or may have been so charged with the care, custody, and maintenance of such child or children, subject to the same conditions, provisions and limitations as if they were her own children by her said deceased husband.

Sect. 5.—*Widows and Minors not Debarred, etc.*—By this section no widow or guardian to whom an increase of pension has

been or may hereafter be granted on account of minor children, shall be deprived thereof by reason of their being maintained or educated at the expense of the State or of the public.

SECT. 6.—*Extension of Limitation.*—This section provides that all pensions applied for within five years after the right thereto shall have accrued, and which have been or may be granted under the Act of July 14, 1862, or Acts supplementary thereto, shall commence from the discharge or death of the person on whose account the pension has been or shall be granted; and in cases of insane persons and minors, who were without guardians or other proper legal representatives previous to said limitation, applications may be filed in their behalf after its expiration. This section applies solely to cases in which the title to pension has accrued subsequent to March 4, 1861.

SECT. 7.—*Arrears.*—In which notification of title to arrears of pension, under the foregoing section is provided for; and also that no claim agent or other person shall be entitled to compensation for services in making application for such arrears.

SECT. 8.—*Widow's Pension to Children, etc.*—In which the requirement of the certificate of the court that satisfactory evidence has been adduced of the abandonment of the care of the minor child or children of a deceased soldier by his widow, or of her unsuitableness to have custody of them is dispensed with. The furnishing of satisfactory evidence thereof to the commissioner shall be sufficient to cause the suspension of said widow's pension.

SECT. 9.—*Pending Claim may be Completed by Heirs.*—In which if any person entitled to a pension has died since March 4, 1861, his heirs or legal representatives shall be entitled to receive the accrued pension: provided no widow or minor child survives the applicant.

SECT. 10.—*Remarriage.*—This section provides for pension to the widow or dependent mother, from the death of soldier to the date of claimant's remarriage, (provided no children under sixteen survive.)

SECT. 11.—*Extension of Time.*—This section provides for the continuance in force of the Act of July 4, 1864, from the 4th July, 1867, for five years.

SECT. 12.—*Loss of an Eye.*—This section allows twenty-five dollars as a pension for total loss of sight from wounds received or

disease contracted in the service, though the pensioner may have had only one eye when entering the service.

SECT. 13.—*Pensions by Reason of Right Accrued since Revolution.*—By this section all persons pensioned by reason of services rendered since the war of the Revolution, and prior to March 4, 1861, are placed on the same footing with those pensioned under Acts passed since that time; and grants eight dollars per month to the widows of revolutionary soldiers and sailors now pensioned at less than that amount.

SECT. 14.—*Limbs to Officers.*—By this section captains in the army and lieutenants in the navy, and those of less rank, who have lost a leg or an arm in such service, shall be entitled to receive an artificial limb upon the same terms as privates in the army.

SECT. 15.—*Special Acts.*—By this section all pensions granted by special Acts shall be subject to be varied in amount, according to the provisions and limitations of the pension laws.

SECT. 16.—*Repealing Clause.*—By this section all Acts and parts of Acts inconsistent with the foregoing provisions of this Act be and the same are hereby repealed.

NATURALIZATION LAWS.

NATURALIZATION is the act by which an alien, or foreigner, becomes invested with the rights and privileges of a native-born subject or citizen. In the United States, a person duly naturalized is entitled to all the privileges and immunities of a native-born citizen, except that he must have been a resident of the United States for seven years, to enable him to occupy a seat in Congress, and that he is not eligible to the office of President or Vice-President, or, under the Constitution of some of the States, to that of Governor.

Congress having the power, under the Constitution of the United States, to establish a uniform rule of naturalization, has provided by various enactments, as follows, viz.: Any alien, having arrived in the United States after the age of eighteen years, may be admitted to the rights of citizenship, after a declaration, upon his part, or oath or affirmation, before the Supreme, Superior, District, or Circuit Court of, or any court of record having common law jurisdiction in, any of the United States, or of the territories thereto belonging, or before a Circuit or District Court of the United States, or the Clerk or Prothonotary of any of the aforesaid courts, two years at least before his admission, that it is his bona fide intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, State, or sovereignty whatever, and particularly by name, the prince, potentate, State, or sovereignty, whereof such alien may at any time have been a citizen or subject; if such alien has borne any hereditary title, or been of any of the orders of nobility in the kingdom or State from which he came, he must, moreover, expressly renounce his title or order of nobility, in the court in which his application is made, which renunciation is to be recorded in such county; and the court admitting such alien

VIEW OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO.

must also be satisfied that he has continuously resided in the United States for five years, at least, immediately preceding his naturalization, and also within the State or Territory wherein such court is at the time held, at least one year immediately previous to such naturalization; and that during such five years, he has been of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same; the oath of at least two citizens of the United States, is requisite to prove the fact of such residence; and, at the time of his application to be admitted to citizenship, he must make, upon oath or affirmation, the same declaration of renunciation and abjuration of allegiance to any foreign power, and also, make oath or affirmation to support the Constitution of the United States; all of which proceedings are to be recorded by the Clerk or Prothonotary of the proper court.

If any alien, having legally filed his declaration of intention to become a citizen and taken the necessary oath or affirmation, die before he is actually naturalized, his widow and children are entitled to all the rights and privileges of citizens, upon taking the required oaths or affirmations.

Any alien, arriving in the United States under the age of eighteen years, and continuously residing therein until the time of his application for citizenship, may, after reaching the age of twenty-one years, and having been a resident within the United States for five years, including the three years of his minority, be admitted a citizen, without making the formal declaration of intention required in other cases; but at the time of his admission, he must make such declaration, and further satisfy the court, upon oath or affirmation, that, for the three years immediately preceding, it had been his bona fide intention to become such citizen, and in all other respects must comply with the naturalization laws of the United States.

Severe penalties for counterfeiting any evidence of citizenship, or disposing of a certificate of naturalization to any person other than the one for whom it was issued, are imposed by act of Congress.

It is to be observed, in this connection, that as the various States have the right under the Constitution of the United States, of defining and fixing the qualifications of their respective citizens,

persons who are aliens and not citizens of the United States may yet be citizens of a particular State, under its enactments, entitled to right of suffrage and other privileges and immunities enjoyed by and belonging to the citizens of such particular State.

Some of the States have also interfered, by legislative enactment, to require a naturalized citizen to reside in such State a certain length of time after his naturalization, before he can enjoy the right of suffrage therein.

It has been held, that, if a subject of a foreign power, at the time of leaving the dominion of such power, actually owed military duty or service to such power, by formal enactment or conscription, he is not protected, in the event of his return within the dominion of such power, by his certificate of naturalization within the United States, from the discharge of such duty or service, but is bound to render the same, upon demand therefor made after such return.

It is but just, however, to add, that this opinion is strongly combated, and can by no means, at present at least, be considered as embodying the settled opinion of the proper authorities, or of the people of the United States.

PRE-EMPTION LAWS.

A PRE-EMPTION right is the right of a squatter upon the lands of the United States to purchase, in preference to others, when the land is sold. Such right is granted to the following persons: Any citizen of the United States; any person who has filed his declaration of intention to become a citizen; any head of a family; any widow; any single woman of the age of twenty-one years or over, and any person who has made a settlement, erected a dwelling-house upon, and is an inhabitant of the tract sought to be entered—*provided* such settlement was made since June 1, 1840, and previously to the time of application for the land, which land must, at the date of the settlement, have had the Indian title extinguished, and been surveyed by the United States.

A person bringing himself within the above requirements by proof satisfactory to the Register and Receiver of the land district in which the land may lie, taken pursuant to the rules hereafter prescribed, will, after having taken the affidavit required by the Act, be entitled to enter, by legal subdivisions, any number of acres, not exceeding one hundred and sixty, or a quarter-section, to include his residence; and he may avail himself of the same at any time prior to the day of the commencement of the public sale, including said tract, where the land has not yet been proclaimed.

Where the land was subject to private entry, June 1, 1840, and a settlement shall thereafter be made upon such land, or where the land shall become hereafter subject to private entry, and after that period a settlement shall be made, which the settler is desirous of securing, notice of such intention must be given within thirty days after such settlement; and, in all such cases, the proof, affidavit and payment must be made within twelve months after such settlement.

The tracts liable to entry are embraced under the following designations: *first*, A regular quarter-section, notwithstanding the quantity may vary a few acres from one hundred and sixty; or a quarter-section, which, though fractional in quantity by the passage of a navigable stream through the same, is still bounded by regular sectional and quarter-sectional lines; *second*, a fractional section containing not over one hundred and sixty acres, or any tract being a detached or a nomalous survey made pursuant to law, and not exceeding such quantity; *third*, two adjoining half-quarter sections (in all cases to be separated by a north and south line, except on the north side of township, where the surveys are so made as to throw the excess or deficiency on the north and west sides of the township), of the regular quarters mentioned in the first designation; *fourth*, two half-quarter or eighty-acre subdivisions of a fractional or broken section, adjoining each other, the aggregate quantity not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres; *fifth*, a regular half-quarter and an adjoining fractional section, or an adjoining half-quarter subdivision of a fractional section, the aggregate quantity not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres; *sixth*, if the pre-emptor do not wish to enter one hundred and sixty acres, he may enter a single half-quarter section (made by a north and south line), or an eighty-acre subdivision of a fractional section; *seventh*, one or more adjoining forty-acre lots may be entered, the aggregate not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres; and, *eighth*, a regular half-quarter, a half-quarter subdivision, or a fractional section, may each be taken, with one or more forty-acre subdivisions lying adjoining, the aggregate not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres. Forty-acre tracts, or quarter-quarter sections, may be entered in the same manner that eighty-acre, or half-quarter sections, have been.

Only one person upon a quarter-section is protected, and he the one who made the first settlement, provided he conform to the other provisions of the law. A person who has once availed himself of the provisions of the Pre-emption Act, cannot, at any future period, or at any other land-office, acquire any other right under it. No person, who is the proprietor of three hundred and twenty acres of land in any State or Territory of the United States, or who quits or abandons his residence on his own land to reside on

the public land in the same State or Territory, is entitled to the benefit of the Pre-emption Acts.

The approval of the tracts by the local land-office is the evidence of the survey; but the land is to be construed as surveyed, when the requisite lines are run on the field, and the corners established by the deputy-surveyor. No assignments or transfers of pre-emption rights are recognized at the land-office; the patents issuing to the claimants, in whose names alone the entries are made.

The following description of lands are not liable to entry: *first*, lands included in any reservation by any treaty, law or proclamation of the President of the United States, and lands reserved for salines and for other purposes; *second*, lands reserved for the support of schools; *third*, lands acquired by either of the last two treaties with the Miami Indians in Indiana, or which may be acquired of the Wyandot Indians in Ohio, or any other Indian reservation, to which the title has been, or may be extinguished at any time during the operation of the Pre-emption Acts, by the United States; *fourth*, sections of lands reserved to the United States, alternate to other sections granted to any State for the construction of any canal, railroad, or other public improvement; *fifth*, sections or fractions of sections included within the limits of any incorporated town; *sixth*, every portion of the public lands which has been selected as a site for a city or town; *seventh*, every parcel or lot of land actually settled and occupied for the purposes of trade, and agriculture; and *eighth*, all lands in which are situated any known salines or mines.

Persons claiming the benefit of the Pre-emption Acts are required to file duplicate affidavits, such as are specified by law, and to furnish proof, by one or more disinterested witnesses, of the facts necessary to establish the requisites mentioned in the first paragraph of this article; such witnesses having first been duly sworn or affirmed by some competent authority.

If adverse claims are made to the same tract, each claimant is to be notified of the time and place of taking testimony, and allowed to cross-examine the opposite witnesses, and to furnish counter-proof, itself subject to cross-examination. If, by reason of distance, sickness, or infirmity, the witnesses cannot personally appear before the register of the land-office, their depositions,

taken in conformity with the following regulations, may be received.

The notice to adverse claimants must be in writing, and served in time to allow at least one day for every twenty miles which the party may have to travel in going to the place of taking evidence. The proof, in all cases, should consist of a simple detail of facts merely, and not of broad and general statements. If the pre-emptor be "the head of a family," the witnesses must state the facts constituting him such; whether he be a husband having a wife and children, or a widower, or an unmarried person under twenty-one years of age, having a family, either of relatives or others, dependent upon him, or hired persons. All the facts relative to the settlement in person, inhabitancy, or personal residence, the time of its commencement, the manner and extent of its continuance, as also those sharing the apparent objects, must be stated. It must be stated that the claimant made the settlement on the land in person; that he has erected a dwelling upon the land; that he lived in the same, and made it his home, etc. In the event of a decision by the land-officer against the claimant, he may appeal to the Commissioner of the Land-Office at Washington.

No entry will be permitted until the affidavit required of the claimant is taken. Duplicates thereof must be signed by the claimant, and the fact of the oath being taken must be certified by the register or receiver administering the same; one copy to be filed in the Register s office, and the other to be sent to the Land-Office at Washington.

A purchaser of public land is only required to make written application to the Register of the local land-office for the tract desired to be entered, and to pay to the Receiver the purchase-money therefor. Blank forms of such application are furnished gratuitously at the Land-Office where the tract is desired to be entered.

SOLDIERS' HOMESTEAD LAW
OF 1872.

THE following is the full text of the Amendatory Soldiers' Homestead Bill, approved by the President on the 3d of April, 1872.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That every private soldier and officer who has served in the army of the United States during the recent rebellion for ninety days or more, and who was honorably discharged, and has remained loyal to the government, including the troops mustered into the service of the United States by virtue of the third section of an act entitled "An act making appropriations for completing the defenses of Washington, and for other purposes," approved February 13th, 1862, and every seaman, marine and officer who has served in the navy of the United States, or in the marine corps, during the rebellion for ninety days, and who was honorably discharged, and has remained loyal to the government, shall, on compliance with the provisions of an act entitled, "An act to secure homesteads to actual settlers on the public domain, and the acts amendatory thereof, as hereinafter modified, be entitled to enter upon and receive patents for a quantity of public lands (not mineral) not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres, or one quarter section, to be taken in compact form according to legal subdivision, including the alternate reserved section of public lands along the line of any railroad or other public work not otherwise reserved or appropriated, and other lands subject to entry under the homestead laws of the United States: *Provided*, the said homestead settler shall be allowed six months after locating his homestead within which to commence his settlement and improvements: *And provided also*, the time which the homestead settler shall have served in the army, navy or marine corps aforesaid shall be deducted

from the time heretofore required to perfect title, or if discharged on account of wounds received, or disability incurred in the line of duty, then the term of enlistment shall be deducted from the time heretofore required to perfect title, without reference to the length of time he may have served: *Provided, however*, that no patent shall issue to any homestead settler who has not resided upon, improved and cultivated his said homestead for a period of at least one year after he shall commence his improvements as aforesaid.

SECTION 2. That any person entitled under the provisions of the foregoing section to enter a homestead, who may have heretofore entered under the Homestead law a quantity of land less than one hundred and sixty acres, shall be permitted to enter under the provisions of this act so much land as, when added to the quantity previously entered, shall not exceed one hundred and sixty acres.

SECTION 3. That in the case of the death of any person who would be entitled to a homestead under the provisions of the first section of this act, his widow, if unmarried, or in case of her death or marriage, then his minor orphan children, by a guardian duly approved and officially accredited at the Department of the Interior, shall be entitled to all the benefits enumerated in this act, subject to all the provisions as to settlement and improvements therein contained: *Provided*, that if such person died during his term of enlistment, the whole term of his enlistment shall be deducted from the time heretofore required to perfect the title.

SECTION 4. That where a party, at the date of his entry of a tract of land under the Homestead laws, or subsequently thereto, was actually enlisted and employed in the army or navy of the United States, his services therein shall, in the administration of said Homestead laws, be construed to be equivalent, to all intents and purposes, to a residence for the same length of time upon the tract so entered: *Provided*, that if his entry has been canceled by reason of his absence from said tract while in the military or naval service of the United States, and such tract has not been disposed of, his entry shall be restored and confirmed: *And provided further*, that if such tract has been disposed of, said party may enter another tract subject to the entry under said laws, and

GENERAL VIEW OF THE RUINS OF SOUTH CHICAGO.

MAP OF CHICAGO, SHOWING THE BURNT DISTRICT, AFTER THE GREAT FIRE.

his right to a patent therefor shall be determined by the proofs touching his residence and cultivation by the first tract and his absence therefrom in such service.

SECTION 5. That any soldier, sailor, marine, officer or other person coming within the provisions of this act may, as well BY AN AGENT as in person, enter upon said homestead: *Provided*, that the said claimant in person shall, within the time prescribed [SIX MONTHS FROM DATE OF ENTRY] commence settlement and improvements on the same, and thereafter fulfill all the requirements of this act.

SECTION 6. That the commissioner of the General Land Office shall have authority to make all needful rules and regulations to carry into effect the provisions of this act."

HOW TO ACQUIRE TITLE TO GOVERNMENT LANDS.

THERE are two classes of public lands subject to entry; one at $1.25 per acre, known as *minimum*, and one at $2.50, known as *double minimum*, the latter being the alternate sections along the lines of railroads. Title may be acquired by purchase at public sale, or by "private entry," and in virtue of the Pre-emption and Homestead Laws.

At Public Sale.—Lands are offered at auction to the highest bidder, pursuant to proclamation or public notice.

Private Entry.—Lands subject to private entry, are those which have been once offered at public sale without finding purchasers. In order to acquire title to these lands, a written application must be made to the Land Register of the District in which the land is located, describing the tract desired. The Register certifies the fact to the Receiver, stating price, and the applicant then pays the money and takes a receipt, and at the close of the month the Register and Receiver make return of the sale to the General Land Office, when a patent or full title issues on due surrender of the receipt, and will be delivered at the option of the purchaser, at the General Land Office in Washington, or by the Register at the District Land Office.

Land Warrants.—When lands are to be located with land warrants, application must be made as in cash cases, accompanied by an assigned warrant. When the tract is $2.50 per acre, $1.25 per acre must be paid in addition to the warrant. Receipts are given and patents delivered, as in the preceding case. At the time of location, a fee of 50 cents for a 40 acre warrant, and a corresponding amount for larger ones, must be paid to the Register, and a like sum to the Receiver.

Agricultural College Scrip.—This may be used in the location of lands at private entry, but is only applicable to lands subject to entry at $1.25 per acre, and is restricted to a technical "quarter section," and to three sections in each township of land. The proceeding to acquire title is the same as in cash and warrant cases, the fees being the same as on warrants. This scrip may be used in payment of pre-emption claims.

Pre-emptions.—Any person being the head of a family, or widow, or single man over 21 years of age, and a citizen of the United States, or a person who has filed his declaration to become such, by settling upon and improving any of the "offered," "unoffered," or unsurveyed lands of the United States, may obtain a pre-emption right to purchase 160 acres so occupied, at the regular government price, whether it be $1.25 or $2.50 per acre. Where the tract is "offered" land, the settler must file with the District Land Office his statement as to the fact of settlement, within thirty days thereafter, and within one year must make proof to the Land Office, of his actual residence and cultivation, and secure the land by payment in cash or Land Warrant. Where the land has been surveyed and not offered at public sale, the statement must be filed within three months after settlement, and payment made within 21 months. Where settlement is made upon unsurveyed lands, the settler is required to file a statement within three months after the survey, and pay within eighteen months thereafter. No person is entitled to more than one pre-emption right.

The Homestead Privilege.—The Homestead laws give to every citizen the right to a Homestead of 160 acres minimum, or eighty acres double minimum. To obtain Homestead, applicant must swear that he is the head of a family, or over the age of twenty-one, a citizen, or has declared his intention to become such; and that the entry is for his exclusive use and benefit, and for actual settlement and cultivation. When an applicant has made actual settlement upon the land he desires, he must make affidavit of the fact before the Land Register, and pay fees amounting on 160 acres of minimum land to $18, or an equal sum for eighty acres of double minimum, for which he gets a receipt; and after five years' occupation and cultivation of the land, he is entitled upon proof of such cultivation to a patent or full title to the Homestead. Any loyal person in the naval or military service of the

United States, may acquire a Homestead by reason of his family occupying land and making the application in his stead. All officers, soldiers and sailors, who have served in the army or navy for ninety days and remained loyal, may enter 160 instead of 80 acres of double minimum lands. The fees above for entering Homestead apply to surveyed lands in Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, Dakota, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Florida, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. In California, Nevada, Oregon, Colorado, New Mexico, Washington Territory, Arizona, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming and Montana, the fees are $22 instead of $18. A settler having filed a pre-emption declaration, may change his filing into Homestead, and receive the benefit of the Homestead laws. If a Homestead settler does not wish to remain five years on his land before obtaining title, he may pay for it in cash or Land Warrants. Lands obtained under the Homestead laws are exempt from liability for debts contracted prior to the issuing of the patent.

United States Land Offices are located at Fort Des Moines, Council Bluffs, Fort Dodge and Sioux City, Iowa; Menasha, Falls of St. Croix, Stevens' Point, La Crosse, Bayfield and Eau Claire, Wisconsin; San Francisco, Marysville, Humboldt, Stockton, Visalia, Sacramento and Los Angeles, California; West Point, Beatrice, Lincoln, Dakota City and Grand Island, Nebraska; Taylor's Falls, St. Cloud, Du Luth, Alexandria, Jackson, New Ulm and Litchfield, Minnesota; Oregon City, Roseburg and Le Grand, Oregon; Topeka, Junction City, Humboldt and Augusta, Kansas; Carson City, Austin, Belmont and Aurora, Nevada; Vermilion, Springfield and Pembina, Dakota; Denver City, Fair Play and Central City, Colorado; Boonville, Ironton and Springfield, Missouri; Mobile, Huntsville and Montgomery, Alabama; New Orleans, Monroe and Natchiloches, Louisiana; Detroit, East Saginaw, Ionia, Marquette and Traverse City, Michigan; Little Rock, Washington and Clarksville, Arkansas; Boise City and Lewiston, Idaho; Chillicothe, Ohio; Indianapolis, Indiana; Springfield, Illinois; Jackson, Mississippi; Tallahassee, Florida; Olympia and Vancouver, Washington Territory; Helena, Montana; Prescott, Arizona; Salt Lake City, Utah.

THE LAW OF NATIONS.

NATIONS, like individuals, are bound by certain laws which govern and control their relation and conduct to each other. It is, or should be, based upon the divine precept, "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them." No other rule is just, and nations are as strongly bound to obey it as an individual. This, however, is not enough; and sad as is the commentary, in other and more human laws they find a stronger protection. There is no tribunal but that of public opinion to enforce upon nations an observance of the courtesy due each other, but, in this age, there is not a civilized government on earth that does not stand sufficiently in awe of this to openly respect its compact with other nations.

There can, of course, be no court for the adjustment of national misunderstandings; and each nation is therefore a law unto itself, and the chief judge of its own wrongs and grievances; hence, when difficulties and disputes arise between them, and neither reason nor charity will lead to a peaceful settlement of their troubles, war is resorted to, and by force of arms, or superiority of numbers, one is forced to yield its claims to the other, and often to relinquish justice. A nation's strength is not always a nation's glory, since it may have been acquired by the most dishonorable means; and a nation's greatness is not always a nation's honor, since it may have been reached in such a way as to be its shame. In the ages when the most bloody and cruel war begat heroes, and the most treacherous and cowardly acts often crowned them with laurels, it was enough that a nation was victorious; it mattered little whether that victory, or the terms dictated to the conquered, were honorable or otherwise, and some of the most noted of the ancient Roman and Grecian warriors were distinguished for cruelty, tyranny and treachery. To violate a treaty was, with

Rome, but to proclaim that it was more to her interest to break than to keep it—or that she was strong enough to-day to withdraw what she conceded through weakness yesterday. Every nation has, as much as every family, the right to regulate its own domestic or internal affairs; and no other nation has a right to interfere, no matter what its laws or customs may be, or how barbarous or inhuman; and they may alter or abolish them, in part or altogether, as they chose, but it must be done with proper consideration for the rights of others, and care that it does not interfere with or injure them.

All political divisions are protected under and by the law of nations, as the States of a confederacy or union are protected by the constitution that is binding upon all alike; and any nation or kingdom guilty of wilfully violating treaties, or resorting to dissimulation to free itself from honest obligations, or wantonly making unprovoked war upon a neighbor would forfeit its claim to the protection of the law of nations, and all governments would be bound to see that justice was done to the wronged party. Every government is free to act as it sees fit in making treaties, and in using its discretion and judgment as to what is best for itself.

Every nation has an exclusive right to the use, for navigation, or other purposes, of the rivers flowing through its own territory, to sea, lake or inland bay, and to its own sea coast for three miles from shore; and all her vessels, of whatever description, going beyond that line, are considered in foreign waters, and must be provided with passports from their government, which is neither more nor less than an official certificate that the ship is from the country under whose flag she sails, and gives permission to visit certain ports or countries, and to navigate certain waters without molestation. It gives a minute and truthful description of the vessel, her officers, crew, lading, capacity, guns, etc., and asks of all powers that the vessel be allowed to pass on her journey without disturbance; and any molestation or insult to her is an insult to the nation whose flag she bears, and one requiring the fullest apology and the most ample amendment, according to the law of nations.

Every nation has its agent or representative at the national capital, at the court, or legislative assemblage of each other; and

the failure of a nation to send a minister to a court, or assembly of national interest, is often a sign of non-recognition of that power. These officers are divided into four classes: 1st, Ambassadors or Papal Legates; 2d, Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary; 3d, Resident Minister, accredited to sovereigns or independent nations; 4th, *Charge d'Affaires*, accredited to the minister of foreign affairs. An ambassador holds the highest rank, and acts in the place of the sovereign who employs him, and his word is absolute, so far as his government is concerned; and is entitled to all the honors which would be paid to the ruler he represents personally; and he is not answerable or held accountable to the country he visits for any crime or atrocity, but it can be exacted of his own government that he be re-called and punished.

In times of peace, special agents sent out in case of an emergency, or for a special purpose, is styled an envoy. A plenipotentiary is a minister who is authorized to act for his sovereign in any negotiations, and to arrange terms and treaties at the close of war. The ministers of the United States are required to keep their government notified of everything which is of interest or importance to it, to see that justice is done to their countrymen, that they are not oppressed or wronged, and to encourage every movement which tends to the enlightenment of the race, and to improve their condition. A *charge d' affaires* ranks lowest in the class of foreign ministers—is, indeed, a deputy simply, and intrusted by the ambassador to take charge of the business with which he intrusts him. A consul is a commercial agent, who is sent by his government to reside abroad, and his business lies usually in seaport towns. The consul must carry with him a certificate of his appointment, must be publicly recognized and receive from the government under which he proposes to reside a written permission to perform his special duties. He is not entitled to the immunities of a minister and may be discharged at the will of the government to whom he is sent; but an ambassador can only be withdrawn at the will of the sovereign he represents. The refusal to receive a consul is never considered a breach of etiquette, but a refusal to receive a minister would be an open insult to his government, and denote great dissatisfaction, if not actual hostility. It is not customary, nor admissible, to open war upon

any nation without a certain preliminary course. It is preceded by setting forth the wrongs and grievances upon which it is based, and asking peaceful redress and not until every other means have been tried, and every other measure resorted to without success, is war justified by the law of nations. In the United States the power to declare war is intrusted to the national legislature. When once war has been declared, every subject is considered or treated as if responsible for the acts of his government, and enmity and hostility exists, not only between the active armies, but between the individuals who comprise the nations, and indirectly they support the war, since the taxes levied upon them, paid, it may be reluctantly, yet paid, are the only means by which the armies could be sustained or war carried on.

A blockade is the surrounding of a place with hostile troops or ships in such a manner as to prevent escape and hinder supplies of ammunition and provision from entering, with a view to compelling a surrender by hunger and want, without regular attacks. No neutral nation is permitted to afford aid or relief to the inhabitants, and all supplies in a state of transmission for such relief, are subject to confiscation. A mere declaration of blockade is not sufficient, nor is it binding upon neutral powers, unless they have first been notified, and the port or country surrounded in such a manner as to prevent ingress or egress.

A truce is a temporary suspension of hostilities by the mutual agreement of the two armies, and at the close of it, war may be at once resumed, and it may be general, or only partial. A partial truce suspends hostilities only at one point, while a general truce extends over all the dominion of the hostile nations.

A declaration of war is a total prohibition of commercial intercourse between the citizens of the two opposing powers, and any contracts made between them are null and void; neither is it lawful to insure the property of, or remit money to, a citizen of the other country.

An embargo is an injunction to vessels not to leave port, and can only be issued by the supreme rulers of a country, and implies that there is threatening and immediate danger.

Letters of marque and reprisal are sealed commissions granted by a government to its citizens, licensing the seizure of an enemy's property, or of the person of those who belong to a government

CHICAGO WATER WORKS.

SOURCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

which has refused to do justice to the country granting it; and war-vessels owned by private individuals, and thus licensed, are privateers.

A treaty is a solemn compact between nations, made by commissioners who represent the sovereign or chief magistrate, and the country which they represent pledges its national honor and truth before the world to keep sacred the stipulations of such treaty . and this is as closely binding upon the respective governments as are contracts upon private citizens. In this age a nation would be irredeemably disgraced who would wilfully outrage or violate a treaty.

It is the tendency and design of the law of nations to cultivate the principles of justice and humanity, and to unite in the encouragement of the rational usages of the Christian world.

THE FUTURE OF OUR COUNTRY.

THE history of America has not, like that of the Old World, the charm of classical or romantic associations; but in useful instruction and moral dignity it has no equal. It is not yet a century since this fair and flourishing republic was a colony of England, scarcely commanding the means of existence without the aid of the mother country, who was herself oppressed by European wars. Our puritan forefathers began in the rough fields of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, on a broad, comprehensive principle, which has gone forth to fraternize the world. Our history, therefore, like that poetical temple of fame reared by the imagination of Chaucer, and decorated by the taste of Pope, is almost exclusively dedicated to the memory of the truly great. Within, no idle ornament encumbers its bold simplicity. The pure light of Heaven enters from above, and sheds an equal and serene radiance around. As the eye wanders about its extent, it beholds the unadorned monuments of brave and good men, who have bled or toiled for their country; or it rests on votive tablets inscribed with the names of the blessed benefactors of mankind. The puritans of England—the resolute conquerors of the lakes and forests of the New World—occupied, in the first period of their social existence, the depressed position of a European colony; but the spirit of liberty which had led them to these wild regions, and the gifts of a magnificent and fertile nature, were sufficient to prepare them for their high destiny. This rude apprenticeship lasted more than one hundred and fifty years before the hour of change struck; and in the night of the 18th of April, 1775, the cannons of Lexington called a new-born nation to regenerate the world. The people rose as one man, and turning the ploughshares that tilled the soil into

swords to defend it, they threw themselves upon their unjust oppressors, and proclaimed at Philadelphia the immortal principles of self-government, that made tyrants tremble and every generous heart palpitate with joyful hope. At that moment a new name was inscribed on the catalogue of great nations. If not great in national importance, it was great by the moral influence it immediately exercised on the world. The long and bloody but successful Revolutionary War broke the chains of the thirteen colonies, and offered to the astonished world the most sublime spectacle of ancient or modern times—the fusion of all races, tongues and sects, in the one political religion of liberty.

In our necessarily brief record of these wonderful events and their grand results, we have as historians tried to be faithful, and as chroniclers have endeavored to present facts unbiased by prejudice, and with strict regard to truth. We view the Union from no sectional stand point, but looking over its broad area from east to west, from north to south, we say, with as fervent love as ever swelled the heart of patriot for country, *it is ours!* God bless America! God bless and preserve our Union! and if too much of pride and exultation mingles with our emotions, we find in her glory and honor our only apology. We naturally ask what is to be the future of our country—what its population—how rapid its growth—what of the generations to come, and for what length of time the present rate of increase can be maintained? Some close their eyes to the brightness which surrounds them, and with retroverted vision, and gloomy forebodings, point to the ruin and decay which cover the land where once flourished the mightiest kingdoms of the world; while, passing to the opposite extreme, hopeful and sanguine men will tell you there are no limits to our growth and prosperity. In favor of our present ratio of increase it may be urged, that with a population of only 40,000,000, we have sufficient territory to accommodate 1,000,000,000, and yet not be so densely populated as China, India, or Japan. An eminent mathematician has estimated that, starting at the present year, with a population of 43,000,000, the same ratio of increase that has prevailed for the last century, would give the United States, in the year 2000, a population of one and a quarter billion, or very nearly the present population of the entire globe. Startling as is the proposition, it is not improbable.

We have abundant resources to support this, or even a greater number in comfort. To-day not one-half of our entire territory is settled, and not one-half of that settled is cultivated, while even this does not produce to exceed, on an average, more than one-half it is capable of producing under a higher system of agriculture, and with better machinery; yet we have enough even now, to very nearly or quite sustain the population which we shall have *ten centuries* hence. Those who are living in dread of a famine in consequence of the great rush of emigration, would do well to consider the following facts. Most of the immigrants come from a hard, stern school, in which they have learned lessons of close economy, industry and patient perseverance, preparing them to win from our most sterile lands a richer harvest than rewarded their efforts on the best of their own acres. With simplicity of habit, they possess great power of endurance. Having in their hearts an irrepressible love of freedom, a hungering and thirsting after the liberty with which the generous Republic endows all her sons alike, whether hers by birth or adoption, they become at once the staunchest defenders and the most unbounded admirers of our institutions.

If agriculture is in its infancy, so also is the development of our mineral resources, abundant and unlimited, even to the necessities of all the anticipated increase of population. Christianity and education elevate the masses of the people, and give them the wisdom requisite for the duties of citizens and statesmen, and it is only through the influence of those two agents that we shall escape the fate of Republics which rose and fell before our own had an existence, or its birth was foretold.

So long as numberless church spires pierce the clouds in every city, town, vale and prairie throughout the land, and everywhere are found institutions of learning—from the classic halls that have been the literary *alma mater* of generations of philosophers to the log school-house on the far frontier, we have little to dread from political power. Neither civil nor religious oppression can be brought to bear heavily upon a people thus guarded and protected. No Republic, except our own, ever attained such triumphs in the test of the great principles upon which it was founded, and perhaps no people ever possessed such advantages for perfecting an experiment that has so often proved a disastrous failure with other nations.

It is impossible for us to be too careful in guarding every source by which corruption can creep into our councils and obtain power in our midst. The contest with bigotry, prejudice and superstition, with the religious intolerance of other ages and other nations, will not only be sharp, but long. If "the price of liberty is eternal vigilance," it is still worth all it costs. It is not the intervention of foreign foes we have to dread so much as masked treason in our midst. The world looks on in silence. Freedom, crushed again and again by the hand of tyranny in the Old World, has found a place of refuge, a shelter, a home, an altar in the New. Her triumphant shouts reach the shores of distant kingdoms, and the reverberating echo startles crowned heads from their fancied security.

There is no standing still—no folding of idle hands—no loitering in pleasant places by the way. "Onward!" is the cry; "Onward!" is the motto—onward the purpose. Millions of acres are yet to be brought under cultivation; exhaustless wealth of iron, and coal, and copper, and lead lie in the unexplored depths of the earth. Ophir ne'er possessed more abundant riches of gold and silver than await the persevering industry of the miner in this fair land. Our territories offer homesteads for all who will come.

The ordinary mind is overwhelmed with the magnitude of the view thus presented and shrinks from the task of predicting the future of such a country, but dwells in ever-brightening hope of the glory thereof.

HOW GOVERNMENTS ARE SUPPORTED.

The government of the United States is supported by the proceeds of taxation, and to a slight extent, from the sales of public land. In former years the public lands were considered one of the main resources of the government. The constitution provides that, "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within the Union according to their respective numbers." Resort to this mode of collecting revenue has been had but twice, the last time during the late civil war. The main sources of revenue are: 1. The duties on imports of foreign merchandise; 2. Internal revenue, being the proceeds of taxes on spirits, fermented liquors, tobacco, and cigars, wines, capital, circulation and deposits of banks and bankers, adhesive stamps, including stamps on bank, and stamps on patent medicines, and matches. With this explanation, the following condensed table of receipts and expenditures of the United States treasury for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1874, will explain where the revenue comes from and where it goes.

RECEIPTS.

Custom Duties, (gold)	$163,103,834
Internal Revenue	102,409,785
Sales of Public Lands	1,852,429
Tax circulation and receipts of National Banks	7,030,038
Repayment of interest of Pacific Railroad Co	1,028,895
Custom Fines, penalties	651,272
Labor, Drayage, Storage	741,435
Sales Indian Trust Lands	903,439
Fees, consular, patent, and land	1,898,189
Sales government property	1,699,018
Marine Hospital tax	352,380
Steamboat Fees	274,491
Profits on Coinage	447 970
Tax on Seal skins	356 610
Miscellaneous sources	1,691,303
Total ordinary receipts	284,441,091
Premium on sales of coin	5,037,665
Total net receipts, exclusive of losses	289,478,756

EXPENDITURES.

Civil Expenses	$17,627,110
Foreign Intercourse	1,508,065
Indians	6,692,465
Pensions	29,038,413
Military establishments, including fortifications and harbor improvements and Arsenals	42,313,927
For Naval establishments	30,932,588
Miscellanies, including Lighthouse, collecting revenues, &c	50,566,414
Interest on the Public Debt	107,119,815
Total ordinary expenditures	285,738,800
Premium on bonds purchased	1,395,073
	$287,133,873
Surplus revenue	$2,344,882

STATE AND TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS.

Are supported mainly by direct taxation. The almost universal rule is for the legislature of each State or Territory annually, or

biennially, to make all the appropriations for the entire support of the state government, for the year or two years following the session, and, to raise the revenue to meet these appropriations, a rate of tax is levied upon the real and personal property of the inhabitants according to a legal assessment of the value thereof. In some states, revenue is also derived from special taxes on licenses, or gross receipts of corporations, or fees, or business of insurance, railroad, gas, and other companies, on ferry privileges and from interest on trust funds held for school, college, or other purposes. Payment of the interest or principal of the state debt is included in the general expenditures.

MILITARY RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The military history of the United States is as strange as the rise and rapid growth of the nation. In 1790 the rank and file of the army, as fixed by act of Congress, amouted 1,216 men; and in 1814 an English expediton of 3,500 men was able to sieze and burn Washington, the capital of a country which even then numbered eight millions of inhabitants. In 1861, at the commencement of the war of secession, the whole regular force amounted to only 14,000 men. In April of that year the President called out 75,000 volunteers for three months to defend the capital, which was threatened; and in May a further call for 42,000 was made. In July two calls for 500,000 each were authorized by Congress, and as even this vast force proved insufficient for the gigantic struggle which America had now embarked in, it was found necessary to introduce the conscription. In October, 1863, a levy of 300,000 was ordered, and in February, 1864 a further call of 500,000 was made. Finally, in the beginning of 1865, two further levies, amounting to 500,000 men were ordered, but only partially carried out in consequence of the cessation of hostilities. The total number of men called under arms by the government of the United States between April, 1861, and April, 1865, amounted to 2,752,049, of whom 2,656,053 were actually embodied in the armies. If to these be added 1,100,000 men embodied by the Southern States during the same time, the total armed forces reach the enormous amount of nearly four millions, drawn from a population of only 32,000,000—figures before which the celebrated uprising of the French nation in 1793, or the recent efforts of France and Germany in the war of 1870–71 sink into insignificance. And within three years the whole of these vast forces were peaceably disbanded, and the army had shrunk to a nominal strength of only 30,000 men.

THE CENTENNIAL SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

This Senate has some peculiar features. Including the four Senators who were re-elected. it contains twenty-five new mem-

bers. The four who were re-elected are Thurman and Bayard, Democrats, and Hamlin and Edmunds, Republicans. The other twenty-one are new men—an unusual number.

Among the most conspicuous of those who disappear are Sumner—if it be proper to include him in the list—Schurz, Carpenter, Fenton, Scott, Pratt, Stewart, Buckingham, and Chandler, Republicans, with Stockton and Hamilton, Democrats. Sumner's seat, after having been temporarily occupied by Washburn, permanently falls to Dawes. Schurz is succeeded by Cockrell, who was a general in the Confederate army. He is an imaginative orator, and in depth and brilliancy will not compare with his predecessor. Cameron of Wisconsin, who takes the place of Carpenter, is understood to be a man of some mark, but as a lawyer and a debater he will not take rank with the man whom he badly beat in the Legislature. Kernan, the successor of Fenton, is among the foremost members of the bar. Wallace, who fills Scott's chair, is an acute politician of the Pennsylvania type. McDonald, who displaces Pratt, is one of the ablest Democrats in Indiana. Stewart makes way for Sharon, the rich miner, who lives in San Francisco, but represents Nevada as a rotten borough. Eaton, who takes the vacant seat of Buckingham, has long stood at the head of the Connecticut Democracy. Christiancy, who drove out Zack Chandler, was Chief Justice of Michigan when elected, and is a learned lawyer. Randolph, who follows Stockton, is a man of about the same caliber, while the successor of Hamilton is Whyte, who has been Governor of Maryland, and is the grandson of the famous William Pinkney, one of the great men of the last generation.

Upon the whole perhaps the eleven new Senators make good the places of their predecessors. The only other new Senators of much mark are McMillan, of Minnesota, who has been Chief Justice of that State; Withers of Virginia, who was a general in the Confederate army, and since that time Lieutenant-Governor; Burnside, a major-general of volunteers, and for two or three terms Governor of Rhode Island; and Booth, recently Governor of California, largely engaged in commercial pursuits on the Pacific coast, and holding an independent position in politics.

In the last Senate the Republicans had fifty-three members, including Schurz, Fenton, and Hamilton of Texas, who, at one time, counted as Liberals. The Democracts had twenty members, including Tipton of Nebraska, who was formerly a Liberal. This gave the Republicans thirty-three majority, with one vacancy in Louisiana.

In this Senate the Republicans have forty-three members, and the Democrats, twenty-nine, giving the Republicans a majority of fourteen, Gov. Booth standing as an Independent, and the vacancy in Louisiana still continuing.

1776 AGRICULTURAL BUILDING. 1876.

MACHINERY HALL.

THE WORLD'S PROGRESS IN THIS CENTURY.

Few phenomena are more remarkable, yet few have been less remarked, than the degree in which material civilization—the progess of mankind in all those contrivances which oil the wheels and promote the comfort of daily life—has been concentrated into the present century. It is not too much to say that in these respects more has been done, richer and more prolific discoveries have been made, grander achievements have been realized, in the course of the sixty or seventy years of our own life-time than in all the previous life-time of the race, since States, Nations, and Politics, such as history makes us acquainted with, have had their being.

Consider only the three momentous matters of light, locomotion, and communication, and we shall see that this generation contrasts surprisingly with the aggregate of the progress effected in all previous generations put together since the earliest dawn of authentic history. The lamps and torches which illuminated Belshazzar's feast were probably just as brilliant, and framed out of the same materials, as those which shone upon the splendid fetes of Versailles when Marie Antoinette presided over them, or those of the Tuilleries during the Imperial magnificence of the first Napoleon. Pine wood, oil, and perhaps wax, lighted the banquet-halls of the wealthiest nobles in the eighth century before Christ and in the eighteenth century after Christ, there was little difference, except in the finish of workmanship and elegance of design—little, if any, advance, we mean, in the illuminating power or in the source whence that power was drawn—between the lamps used in the days of the Pyramids, the days of the Coliseum, and the days of Kensington Palace. Fifty years ago, that is, we burnt the same articles, and got about the same amount of light from them, as we did four thousand years ago. Now we use gas of which each burner is equal to fifteen or twenty candles; and when we wish for more, can have recourse to the electric light or analogous inventions, which are fifty-fold more brilliant and far-reaching than even the best gas. The streets of cities, which, from the days of Pharaoh to those of Voltaire, were dim and gloomy, even where not wholly unlighted, now blaze everywhere with something of the brilliancy of the moonlight. In a word, all the advance that has been made in these respects has been made since many of us were children. We remember light as it was in the days of Solomon, we see it as Drummond and Faraday have made it.

The same may be said of locomotion. Nimrod and Noah traveled just in the same way, and at just the same rate, as Thomas Acsheton Smith and Mr. Coke, of Norfolk. The chariots of the

Olympic Games went just as fast as the chariots that conveyed our nobles to the Derby, "in our hot youth, when George the Third was King."

When Abraham wanted to send a message to Lot, he dispatched a man on horseback, who galloped twelve miles an hour. When our fathers wanted to send a message to their nephews they could do no better, and go no quicker. When we were young, if we wished to travel from London to Edinburg, we thought ourselves lucky if we could average eight miles an hour—just as Robert Bruce might have done. Now in our old age we feel ourselves aggrieved if we do not average forty miles.

Everything that has been done in this line since the world began—everything, perhaps, that the capacities of matter and the conditions of the human frame will ever allow to be done—has been done since we were boys. The same at sea. Probably when the wind was favorable, Ulysses, who was a bold and skillful navigator, sailed as fast as a Dutch merchantman of the year 1800, nearly as fast as an Amarican yacht or clipper of our father's day. Now we can steam twelve and fifteen miles an hour with wonderful regularity, whether wind and tide be favorable or not; nor is it likely that we shall ever be able to go much faster. But the progress in the means of communication is the most remarkable of all. In this respect Mr. Pitt was no better off than Pericles or Agamemnon. If Ruth had wished to write to Naomi, or David to send word of love to Jonathan when he was a hundred miles away, they could not possibly have done it under twelve hours. Nor could we to our friends fifty years ago.

PRES. GRANT'S REVIEW OF THE CENTURY.

December 7, 1875.—In submitting my seventh annual message to Congress, in this Centennial year of our national existence as a free and independent people, it affords me great pleasure to recur to the advancement that has been made from the time of the colonies, one hundred years ago. We were then a people numbering only 3,000,000; now, we number more than 40,000,000. Then, industries were confined almost exclusively to the tillage of the soil; now, manufactories absorb much of the labor of the country. Our liberties remain unimpaired. The bondsmen have been freed from slavery. We have become possessed of the respect, if not of the friendship, of all civilized nations. Our progress has been great in all the arts, in science, agriculture, commerce, navigation, mining, mechanics, law, medicine, etc.; and, in general education, the progress is likewise encouraging. Our thirteen states have become thirty-eight,—including Colorado, which has taken the initiatory steps to become a state, and eight

territories, including the Indian territory and Alaska, and excluding Colorado,—making a territory extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific. On the south, we have extended to the Gulf of Mexico; and on the west, from the Mississippi to the Pacific. One hundred years ago, the cotton-gin, the steamship, the railroad, the telegraph, the reaping, sewing, and modern printing machines, and numerous other inventions of scarcely less value to our business and happiness, were entirely unknown. In 1776, manufactures scarcely existed even in name in all this vast territory; in 1870, more than 2,000,000 persons were employed in manufactories, producing more than $2,100,000,000 of produce in amount annually,—nearly equal to the national debt. From nearly the whole of the population of 1776 being engaged in the one occupation of agriculture, in 1870 so numerous and diversified had become the occupations of our people that less than 6,000,000 out of more than 40,000,000 were so engaged. The extraordinary effect produced in our country by a resort to such occupations has built a market for the products of fertile lands distant from the seaboard and the markets of the world. The American system of working various and extensive manufactories next to the plow and the pasture, and adding connecting railroads and steamboats, has produced in our distant country results not equaled by the intelligent parts of other nations. The ingenuity and skill of American mechanics have been demonstrated at home and abroad, in a manner most flattering to their pride. But for the extraordinary genius and ability of our mechanics, the achievements of our agriculturists, manufacturers, and transporters, throughout the country, would have been impossible of attainment. The progress of the miner has also been great. Of coal our production was small; now, many millions of tons are mined annually. So with iron, which formed scarcely an appreciable part of our products half a century ago; we now produce more than the world consumed at the beginning of our national existence. Lead, zinc, and copper, from being articles of import, we may expect to be large exporters of in the near future. The development of gold and silver mines throughout the states and territories has not only been remarkable, but has had a large influence upon the business of all commercial nations. Our merchants in the last hundred years have had a success, and have established a reputation for enterprise, sagacity, progress, and integrity, unsurpassed by people of older nationalities. This good name is not confined to their homes, but goes out upon every sea and into every port where commerce enters. With equal pride we can point to our progress in all the learned professions. As we are now about to enter upon our second Centennial, commencing our manhood as a nation, it is well to look back upon the past, and study what will be best to preserve and advance our future greatness.

THE UNITED STATES CENTENNIAL INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

TO BE HELD A. D. 1876, IN THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA.

An Act of Congress, approved March 3, 1871, provided for the national celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Independence of the United States, by the holding of an Exhibition of Arts, Manufactures, and Products of the soil and mine. A Proclamation by the President, issued July 4, 1873, announced the Exhibition and National Celebration, and commended them to the people of the United States and of all nations.

The act of Congress provided for the organization of the United States Centennial Commission, "whose duty it shall be to prepare and superintend the execution of a plan for holding the Exhibition." Upon the nomination of the Governors of the several states and territories, the President appointed the members of the Centennial Commission.

The Exhibition will be held at Fairmount Park, in the City of Philadelphia, and will be opened on May 10, 1876, and remain open every day, except Sunday, until Nov. 10. The articles to be exhibited have been classified in seven departments, which, for the most part, will be located in appropriate buildings, whose several areas are as follows:

Department.	*Buildings.*	*Acres Covered.*
1. Mining and Metallurgy,		
2. Manufactures,	Main Building	21.47
3. Education and Science,		
4. Art	Art Gallery	1.5
5. Machinery	Machinery Building	14.
6. Agriculture	Agricultural Building	10.
7. Horticulture	Horticultural Building	1.5
Total		48.47

This provides nearly ten more acres for exhibiting space than there were at Vienna, the largest International Exhibition yet held. Yet the applications of exhibitors have been so numerous as to exhaust the space, and many important classes of objects must be provided for in special buildings.

The Women's Centennial Executive Committee have raised $30,000 for the erection of a pavilion in which to exhibit every kind of women's work. To this collection, women of all nations are expected to contribute

The list of special buildings is constantly increasing, and the indications are that their total number will be from 200 to 250. Most of the important foreign nations—England, Germany, Austria, France, Sweden, Egypt, Japan, and others—are putting up one or more structures each, for exhibiting purposes, or for the use of the commissioners, exhibitors, and visitors.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES

MAINE.

IN the year 1638, the same year in which New Haven was settled, Ferdinand Gorges procured a charter of the King of England for all the lands from the borders of New Hampshire, on the south-west, to Sagadahoc, on the Kennebec River, on the north-east, under the name of the Province of Maine. It remained a separate province till 1652, when it became a part of Massachusetts. Various attempts were made, between 1785 and 1802 to form it into an independent State; but these efforts failed. In 1819 a large majority of the people were in favor of separating from Massachusetts. A convention was called, a Constitution prepared and adopted, and, in 1820, Maine was received into the Union. It is by no means an agricultural State, but its extensive fisheries and great lumber trade have greatly enriched it, and its progress in morality has, perhaps, been superior to that of any other State.

The staple export of the State is lumber, of which vast quantities are manufactured from the boundless forests. Her water power is good, but little attention is yet given to the manufacture of woolen or cotton, though the interest in this branch of business is increasing. The State has made steady progress in railroad and other internal improvements. The soil is good and productive; the mineral resources limited. It was settled in 1625, at Bristol, by the English. The population is 626,915.

It forms part of the first judicial circuit and constitutes one judicial district. It has thirteen ports of entry, and thirty-two ports of delivery.

The capital is Augusta, on the Kennebec river.

The State elections are held on the second Monday of September; and the Legislature meets on the first Wednesday of January in each year.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

THIS State was a part of Massachusetts up to the year 1680. It was, however, settled in 1624, the first settlement being formed at Dover by the English. In 1680 it was erected into a separate colony, and its first legislative assembly met that year. John Mason was its first Governor. It suffered severely from Indian wars, and its progress, during the first years of its existence, was slow. In 1742 it contained only six hundred persons liable to taxation. Its first Constitution was formed in 1683. It suffered from the effects of an insurrection in 1686, although prior and subsequent to this affair, it seems to have been one of the most peaceful and quiet of the colonies. It is distinguished for its excellent pastures, towering hills, and fine cattle. The White Mountains are the highest in New England. This State took a prominent and active part in the Revolution. It ratified the Constitution June 21, 1788, since which time it has been highly prosperous.

The soil is sterile, and a very large proportion is devoted to grazing purposes. New Hampshire has but one navigable river, and that but a short distance, but her water power is good and the people are largely engaged in manufactures. Fine quarries of marble and granite are abundant; and minerals of almost every specie, and a variety of precious stones are found in different portions of the State. The population, according to last census, was 318,300.

It lies in the first judicial circuit; constitutes one judicial district; and is embraced in one collection district, and therefore has but one port of entry. There are three ports of delivery.

The capital is Concord. The Legislature assembles on the first Monday in June, the State election being held the second Tuesday in March.

VERMONT.

THE territory of which this State is composed began to be settled in the year 1731, but was for some years considered as a part of New Hampshire. It was also claimed at one time by New York, and a contest arose between that State and New Hampshire, which was adjusted by the King of England in a manner by no means satisfactory to the settlers. The result was a quarrel between Vermont and the Crown, in which the Green Mountain Boys, led by Col. Ethan Allen, resisted the officers of justice, as well as the New York militia, who were called out to sustain them.

The province appears not to have had even a territorial government until 1777, at which time a convention of delegates met at Westminster, and declared themselves an independent State, under the name of New Connecticut. Previous to this time, however, they had rendered material aid to the Revolution. In May, 1755, Col. Allen, at the head of two hundred and seventy men, reduced Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and thus became complete masters of Lake Champlain. During the whole period of the Revolution the State did good service in the cause of liberty, although it remained independent. Some time subsequent to its declaration of independence its name was changed to Vermont. As it was not one of the original States, it did not ratify the Constitution, but, upon application, was admitted to the Union during the second session of Congress, in the year 1791.

The climate of Vermont is pleasant, and the temperature even. The soil, in the valleys, is fertile, and large quantities of maple sugar are made. The water power of Vermont is the best in New England, but is but little used. Granite, marble and slate are found in large quantities. Iron and sulphuret of iron are abundant. A most liberal provision is made for education. Present population, 330,552.

It has three representatives in Congress; forms part of the second judicial circuit, and constitutes one judicial district. One port of entry and two of delivery are authorized to be named by the President of the United States.

Montpelier is the capital. The State election is held on the first Tuesday in September and the Legislature meets on the first Wednesday in October.

MASSACHUSETTS.

MASSACHUSETTS was settled in the year 1620, by the Puritans. These people, having been severely persecuted in England, had previously taken refuge in Holland; but for various reasons they determined, after remaining in Holland a season, to emigrate to the New World. They started at a very unpropitious season, arriving at New England in the winter. The severity of the climate and the scarcity of food at times, operated seriously against their comfort and progress. It is said that they were frequently threatened with starvation. At one time the entire company had but one pint of Indian corn, which being divided equally among them, allowed to each person eight grains. But, unlike the early settlers of Virginia, they were all working men, and good economists. From the time of the landing at Plymouth up to 1691, this first settlement was known as the Plymouth Colony. Meantime another settlement had been formed,

ART GALLERY

HORTICULTURAL HALL.

styled the Massachusetts Colony. Both were for some years under the control of a London company. In 1691 Massachusetts and Plymouth Colonies were united, and thenceforward their history is one. The people of Massachusetts were, during the early part of their colonial existence, sorely vexed, at times, by the Indians, especially by the Pequods. They, unfortunately, had imbibed, during their own persecutions, too much of the spirit of conscription and, although themselves refugees from religious bigotry, sullied much of their history prior to the Revolution by punishing what they called heresy in the Quakers and Baptists. During 1774 and 1775, Massachusetts took a very prominent part in favor of colonial rights, and was the first State to manifest the spirit of resentment toward Great Britain.

This State has wisely made education one of its first objects, and its public school system is unsurpassed. The public schools are supported by direct tax. Harvard College, at Cambridge, is the oldest University in the Union. Massachusetts is the third State in the Union in manufactures, and first in cotton and woolen. Its cotton mills alone furnish employment to 24,988 persons. In internal improvements, she is also rich, and in proportion to her size, is really the most important State in the Union. Salem is the oldest city in New England, celebrated alike for being the place where the Pilgrim Fathers landed when they arrived from England, and for being the scene of the witchcraft superstition. Boston has long enjoyed the title of the Athens of America, and is justly celebrated for the high and intellectual character of her inhabitants. Population, 1,457,351.

The State has an area of 7,800 square miles. Her population in 1870 was 1,457,351, and entitles her to eleven Members of Congress. It is in the first judicial circuit, and forms one judicial district. There are fourteen ports of entry, and twenty-five ports of delivery in this State.

Boston is the Capital, the metropolis of New England, and an important center of intellectual and business energy. The Legislature meets on the first Wednesday in January, and the State elections are held on Tuesday after the first Monday in January.

RHODE ISLAND.

IN June, 1636, Roger Williams, an earnest, enthusiastic advocate of religious liberty in the broadest sense, having been banished by the Puritans of Massachusetts from that colony, went to what is now known as Rhode Island, purchased the present site of Providence of the Narragansett Indians, and founded a colony, of which he was at once pastor, teacher, and father. He donated land to any whom he thought worthy, and Providence Plantation, as it was long called, became an asylum for persecuted Christians of all denominations, especially the Baptists. The first settlement in Rhode Island proper, was formed by William Codington, in the year 1636. Up to 1640 the citizens of Rhode Island made their own laws in general convention. But, in 1644, Roger Williams, with the aid of Gov. Vane, of Massachusetts, procured a charter for two settlements, under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. The Constitution framed under this charter was a good one; and lasted until the year 1818. For many years the legislative assembly of this colony met twice a year.

Rhode Island is distinguished as the smallest State in the Union. It did noble service in the war for independence, but did not, for some reason, adopt the Constitution till the 29th of May, 1790. It has been a highly prosperous State; is distinguished for its good schools and large manufactories. There are no lofty mountains—no rivers of imposing length or breadth, and but few minerals; but the Narragansett Bay, which divides the State into two parts, is picturesque and beautiful—thickly studded with a charming cluster of islands. The State is actively engaged in manufactures, and her water-power is unsurpassed. Education receives a fair share of interest, and the State is alive with energy and activity. Present population 220,350.

Rhode Island forms part of the first judicial circuit; constitutes one judicial district; and has an area of but 1,306 square miles, or 835,840 acres, and has three ports of entry, and seven of delivery. It has two capitals, having been originally formed of two separate colonies. These are Providence and Newport. The election for State officers is held on the first Wednesday in April. The Legislature is held twice in the year, in May and January.

CONNECTICUT.

IN the year 1633, the Puritans of Massachusetts, having heard very flattering reports of the valley of Connecticut, resolved to make an effort to settle it. Accordingly, a company of them sailed for the Connecticut River, taking with them the frame of a house. Meantime the Dutch, claiming the territory as theirs, built a fort on the river where Hartford now stands, to prevent the emigrants from passing up. The Yankees, however, with that steady perseverance which has always marked their course, proceeded on their way, paying no attention to the Dutch fort, whose only demonstration was an unexecuted threat to fire on the emigrants if they passed it. Landing where Farmington River enters the Connecticut, they founded the town of Windsor. Other settlements were subsequently formed at Westfield, Hartford and Watertown. The first general court was held at Hartford, in the year 1636. The province suffered severely from the depredations of the Pequot Indians, with which tribe a great and decisive battle was ultimately fought on the river Mystic, in the year 1636. This battle resulted in the destruction of the Pequot tribe. During this year the towns of Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield met in convention and formed a government, electing John Haynes the first Governor of the colony.

Its course from this period forward was one of great prosperity. It stood in the front rank during the war for Independence, and in no case was ever known to flinch from duty. It ratified the Constitution June 9, 1788.

In minerals, Connecticut is very rich. Marble of a fine quality is abundant, as is also granite. But the beryl and the chrysoberyl are found near Haddam, and Columbite near Middletown. Gold, silver, lead, iron, and copper are found in different parts of the State, as also bismuth.

Her manufacturing and educational interests, as in most of the Eastern States, are in a flourishing condition. Yale College, in this State, is very old, having been founded in 1700. A curious law once existed in Connecticut prohibiting kissing. One trial is on record where, under this law, the parties were proven guilty and fined twenty shillings each. It is to be presumed that it is long since repealed. Population, 537,454.

Its area is small, embracing only 4,674 square miles, or 2,991,360 acres. It has four representatives in Congress. It is part of the second judicial circuit, and constitutes one judicial district. It has five ports of entry, and five collection districts, with twenty-two ports of delivery.

It has had two capitals ever since the first two colonies, established at Hartford and New Haven, were united; and holds its State election on the first Monday in April. The Legislature meets the first Wednesday in May.

NEW YORK.

CAPTAIN Henry Hudson, the famous voyager, discovered what is now New York, together with a considerable extent of territory contiguous to it, in the year 1609. Although an Englishman by nativity, Hudson was at this time employed by the Dutch (Hollanders), who, consequently, claimed the territory. Meantime the English set up a claim to it, as being part of North Virginia. They also claimed it on account of Hudson being an Englishman. The Dutch, however, determined to hold it, and in 1610 opened a trade with the natives at Manhattan Island, on the spot where the city of New York now stands. They erected a fort on or near the site of Albany, named the country in general, New Netherlands, and the station at Manhattan, New Amsterdam. The Dutch retained the country until the year 1664.

It seems that, up to this time, they claimed not only the present territory of New York, but also that of Connecticut and New Jersey. The liberal governments of the surrounding colonies stood in great contrast with the despotic one imposed by the Dutch Government upon their American colonists. And when, in 1664, the English squadron dispatched by James, Duke of York, with instructions to take possession of the province of New Netherlands, appeared before New Amsterdam, the inhabitants were willing to capitulate without resistance. Peter Stuyvesant, their Governor, and an able executive, made vain efforts to arouse them to defense, and was forced to surrender. The English Government was now acknowledged over the whole of New Netherlands, the capital receiving the name of New York, as well

as the province. From this time forward to the Revolutionary War, New York remained in the hands of the English, and was under the control of a very arbitrary succession of governors. The progress of the colony was steady in numbers, wealth and civilization. It took an active part in the Revolution, and adopted its Constitution July 26, 1788. After this it outstripped every State in the Union in everything pertaining to wealth and greatness, save education, in which matter no State can compare with Massachusetts.

The commerce of New York is immense—greater, by far, than of any other State—and she possesses one of the finest harbors in the world. Almost every variety of industry, and manufacture, and art is represented and encouraged, and carried to great perfection. Its internal improvements are carried on on a large scale, and nothing is omitted which would add to the wealth of the State or the people. New York city is the most important city in the Union. Unfortunately, its situation will prevent it from becoming the largest. The hotels of New York are the finest in the world. The State is rich in minerals, and mineral and salt springs abound. The soil is good, and scientific farming is carried to a high degree of excellence. The population is 4,374,499.

Its area is 47,000 square miles, equal to 30,080,000 acres. It has thirty-three Members of Congress.

It forms part of the second judicial circuit, and has three judicial districts, eleven ports of entry, and fourteen ports of delivery, with the privilege of eight or nine others if the President of the United States deems them necessary.

The Capital is Albany. The State elections are held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, and the Legislature meets on the first Tuesday in January in each year.

NEW JERSEY,

AT first, formed a part of the Dutch province of New Netherlands. But soon after the latter came into the hands of the English, the Territory of New Jersey was transferred to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, by the Duke of York. The first permanent settlement was formed at Elizabethtown, in 1664, by emigrants from Long Island. Philip Carteret arrived in the colony in 1665, and became its first governor. The province had very little trouble with the Indians. Many emigrants from New England and New York soon arrived, and for a series of years the colony advanced in prosperity. It enjoyed the blessings flowing from a liberal form of government.

In the year 1685 the Duke of York became the King of England, under the title of James II, and disregarding his former pledges, assumed, in 1688, the government of New Jersey, placing it under the control of Sir Edmund Andros, whom he had already made Governor of New York and New England. This state of things was terminated by the revolution in England, but left New Jersey for years in a very precarious condition. In 1702, its proprietors having resigned their claims, it became a royal province, and was united to New York. In 1738 it became again a separate province, and so continued until the Revolution, in which it took a very active part in favor of liberty. It ratified the Constitution December 18, 1787. Thenceforward its career has been a highly prosperous one.

The scenery of New Jersey is picturesque and beautiful; and its watering places are our most fashionable resorts during the summer season. The State is also rich in minerals, and its beds of marl and peat are very extensive. Its commerce is limited, but its manufactures are excellent and its water power not surpassed. A great deal of attention is given to education, and her colleges and libraries are in a prosperous condition.

It has an area of 8,320 square miles, or 5,324,800 acres. The population, by the census of 1870, was 905,794, which gives her seven Representatives in Congress.

This State lies in the third judicial circuit, and forms one judicial district. There are six ports of entry and as many collection districts; and also eight ports of delivery

Its capital is Trenton. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, and the Legislature assembles the second Tuesday in January.

PENNSYLVANIA.

THE Old Keystone State, and one of the most wealthy and prosperous in the Union, was settled by the Quakers, under the direction of Wm. Penn, at Philadelphia, in the year 1682. The founder of this colony showed himself a philosopher, philanthropist, and thorough political economist, at the very commencement of his labors. He put the province under the government of a Council of Three and a House of Delegates, chosen by the freemen, who, according to his arrangement, were all those who acknowledged the existence of one God. He pursued such a course with the natives as won their confidence and esteem. No Quaker was ever murdered by an Indian; and to this day the "sons of Wm. Penn" are everywhere respected by the savage. The treaty Penn made with the Indians was never violated. In framing the colonial government, he provided for the largest religious liberty, allowing every one to worship according to the dictates of his own conscience. Up to 1864, Delaware, as before mentioned, was included in Penn's grant. But about this time he procured a new charter, more strictly defining the rights and limits

EMIGRANT TRAIN—GOLD HUNTERS 1849.

CHINESE, GOLD MINING IN CALIFORNIA.

of Pennsylvania, and Delaware was detached. For seventy years prosperity smiled upon this colony, during much of which time Penn was, according to the historian, its governor, magistrate, preacher and teacher. It was troubled with no Indian wars till 1754, when Penn's example and teachings began to be forgotten. The population, owing to a considerable influx from Sweden, Germany, and some other countries, began, at a later date, to assume a more varied aspect; and when the colonies rebelled against the mother country, Pennsylvania contained sufficient "fighting" material to lend valuable assistance to the cause of liberty.

Pennsylvania stands first in the abundance and quality of her coal and iron, and though no diamond fields have made her a second Golconda, exhaustless mines of gold have ranked her an Eldorado, yet her more substantial metals have steadily increased her prosperity. Her coal, iron, copper, zinc, marble and slate are apparently inexhaustible, while in greater or less quantities, all the rarer minerals are found in different sections of the country. The railroads and canals of Pennsylvania are very important, and both in number of miles and cost of construction she stands number one. Her school system is excellent, and has received great attention. Population, 3,519,601.

Its area is 46,000 square miles, equal to 29,440,000 acres. The population entitles it to twenty-seven Representatives in Congress.

It is in the third judicial circuit; and forms two judicial districts. There are two ports of entry, and two collection districts. Harrisburg is the capital; the Legislature assembling on the first Tuesday in January, the State elections being held on Tuesday following the first Monday in November.

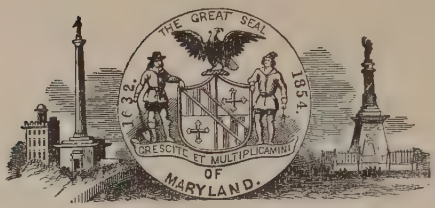
DELAWARE.

GUSTAVUS Adolphus, King of Sweden, formed a plan of establishing colonies in America as early as the year 1626. But as he died on the field of Leutzen, during the German war in 1633, without carrying his scheme into effect, his minister took it up, and employed Peter Minuets, the first Governor of New Netherlands to carry it into effect. In 1638, a small Swedish colony arrived under the direction of Minuets, and settled on Christian Creek, near the present town of Wilmington. Notwithstanding the remonstrances of the Dutch Government of New Netherlands, who claimed the territory, the Swedes continued to extend their settlements from this time until they pre-empted all the territory from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware. At this time the colony was called New Sweden. In 1651, Governor Stuyvesant, to check the aggressive movements of the Swedes, built a fort near the present site of New Castle, of which the Swedes afterward obtained possession by stratagem. Enraged at this movement, the Government of Holland ordered Stuyvesant to reduce the Swedes to submission, which he speedily accomplished with six hundred men, in 1655. The province was soon after annexed to New Netherlands. Delaware was, after it fell into the hands of the English, included in the grant made to William Penn, in 1692. It remained attached to Pennsylvania till 1691, when it was allowed a separate government. It was reunited to Pennsylvania in 1692. In 1703 it was again separated, having

its own legislature, though the same Governor presided over both colonies. The ancient forms of the government were preserved through the revolutionary struggle. It ratified the Constitution December 7, 1787.

The direct foreign trade of Delaware is scarcely worthy of mention, as all its business passes through Philadelphia and New York. She sends large quantities of fruit to the North, and both the quantity and quality are being improved upon every year. The climate is fine, but the sea breeze renders the winters somewhat severe. The soil is productive, and it is rapidly becoming one of the most fertile and prospersous States. Delaware is without mineral wealth of any sort, if we except a fine glass sand, which is exported to the New England States. The population is 125,015.

It is next to Rhode Island in size, containing the small area of 2,120 square miles, or 1,356,800 acres.



MARYLAND.

IN 1632, Sir George Calvert (Lord Baltimore) visited America, explored a tract of country lying on the Chesapeake Bay, belonging to what was then called South Virginia, and returned to England to procure a grant for it. But before the patent was made out, he died, and it was given to his son Cecil. The province was named by King Charles I. in the patent, in honor of his Queen, Henrietta Maria. A part of the province appears to have been included in the grant made sometime afterward to William Penn, and to have caused much contention between the successors of Penn and Baltimore.

In March, 1634, Leonard Calvert, the brother of Cecil, arrived at the mouth of the Potomac River, bringing with him two hundred emigrants, most of whom were Roman Catholic gentlemen. Leaving the vessel, he ascended in a pinnace as far as Piskataqua, an Indian village nearly opposite Mount Vernon. The Indian Sachem gave him full liberty to settle there if he chose; but not deeming it safe, he began a settlement lower down on a branch of the Potomac, at the Indian town of Yoacomoc. The settlement was called St. Mary's.

Maryland made a very fortunate beginning. The colonists arrived in time to make a crop for that year. Their neighbors in Virginia supplied them with cattle, and protected them in great part from the Indians, while their own kind and consistent course materially promoted their happy relations with the savages.

The charter granted them was very liberal—ceding to them the full power of legislation, without any interference on the part of the Crown. In 1635 they made laws for their government, which were somewhat modified in 1636. In 1650 they had, like Virginia, an upper and lower legislative assembly. Pop., 780,894.

Maryland has an area of 11,124 square miles—equal to 7,119,360 acres. The population gives her six Representatives in Congress. By an act of Congress, passed in 1866, this State was put in the fourth judicial circuit, which is composed of Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North and South Carolina. Maryland constitutes one judicial district; has ten ports of entry, viz.: Baltimore, Chester, Oxford, Vienna, Snow-Hill, Annapolis, Nottingham, St. Mary's, Georgetown, and Havre de Grace; and twelve ports of delivery.

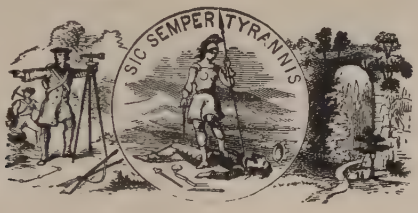
Annapolis is the capital. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the first Wednesday in January.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

THE District, originally ten miles square, now embraces an area of but sixty square miles. It is the seat of our National Government, and lies at the head of tide water, on the east side of the Potomac River. It includes both the cities of Washington and Georgetown. Until the year 1781 it was governed by Congress, but in that year a law was passed giving the District the control of its own affairs. At the time that war was declared between the Colonies and Great Britain, Philadelphia was the Capital of the new territory, and continued to be so until 1783. At that time some difficulty arose between a band of dissatisfied soldiers, who marched to the hall where Congress was in session, forced the doors of the building, and in a violent and insulting manner demanded the back pay due them, amounting to a considerable sum, and which it was not then in the power of the Government to pay. The outrage pressed upon their attention the subject, already under consideration, of a better site for the Capitol, removed from the seat of war and beyond danger of a recurrence of such scenes. It was proposed that it be located on the banks of the Delaware or Potomac river, and in December, 1788, Delaware, through its legislature, offered Congress the necessary ground, provided it did not cover to exceed ten miles square. The matter was debated in Congress, and the North and South, then, as since, divided upon almost every question, clam-

ored like two spoiled children for the location of the new buildings. The House of Representatives at one time declared the Capital should be in Pennsylvania, on the Susquehanna, at which the South demurred. Germantown was next proposed—voted upon by the House, and carried by a vote of 31 to 19. The further consideration of the matter was then postponed until the next session of Congress, and so, for the time, Germantown was the Capital. The South was very much excited over the state of affairs; the North was anything but pleased with it, and in December, 1789, Virginia ceded a district to Congress on the Potomac for the purpose of founding there the Capital, and also pledged herself to give the sum of $120,000 for the erection of public buildings; at the same time asking the intercession of Maryland to induce Congress to accept the gift, and also to pledge herself to give $25,000 for the same purpose. Maryland agreed to both propositions. In Congress the matter came to a complete standstill. Neither the North nor South would yield, and it required the most delicate diplomacy just then to prevent serious trouble. The great question which at that time hung suspended over the heads of politicians, like the fabled sword, by a single hair, was the debt of the States, amounting to $21,000,000; and it had become in some way a party question, and also become in some way, associated with the location of the Capital. It is fortunate that when matters had assumed this ominous form, we had wise men at the helm of our Ship of State. Jefferson was Secretary of State, and Hamilton of the Treasury, and they were clearsighted enough to see that there must be a compromise between the two sections, or there would be a sad rupture. The South must be won over to consent to the General Government's assuming the debt, while the North must accept the offer of Virginia and Maryland. The thing was at length brought around by the utmost tact and delicacy, and the interests of the North and South so skillfully balanced that the threatening clouds passed over, and again sunshine flooded the land. Commissioners were appointed, three in number, to survey the District, and on the 15th of April of the same year, the corner stone was laid at Jones Point, near Alexandria; and having located its boundaries, it was christened "Columbia," with appropriate honors. The next step was to lay off the new city, which was done by major L'Enfant, and it was called "Washington." The Capitol building is

not yet finished, and will cost, when completed, from twelve to fifteen million dollars. Georgetown is separated from Washington only by Rock Creek. It is a beautiful town, and the inhabitants are noted for culture, intellect, and hospitality. The Georgetown College, a noted Roman Catholic institution, is located here, as also is a fine hospital for sailors, said to be one of the best planned and conducted in the Union. The population of Georgetown is 11,384; that of Washington, 107,204. The population of the entire District is 131,000.



VIRGINIA.

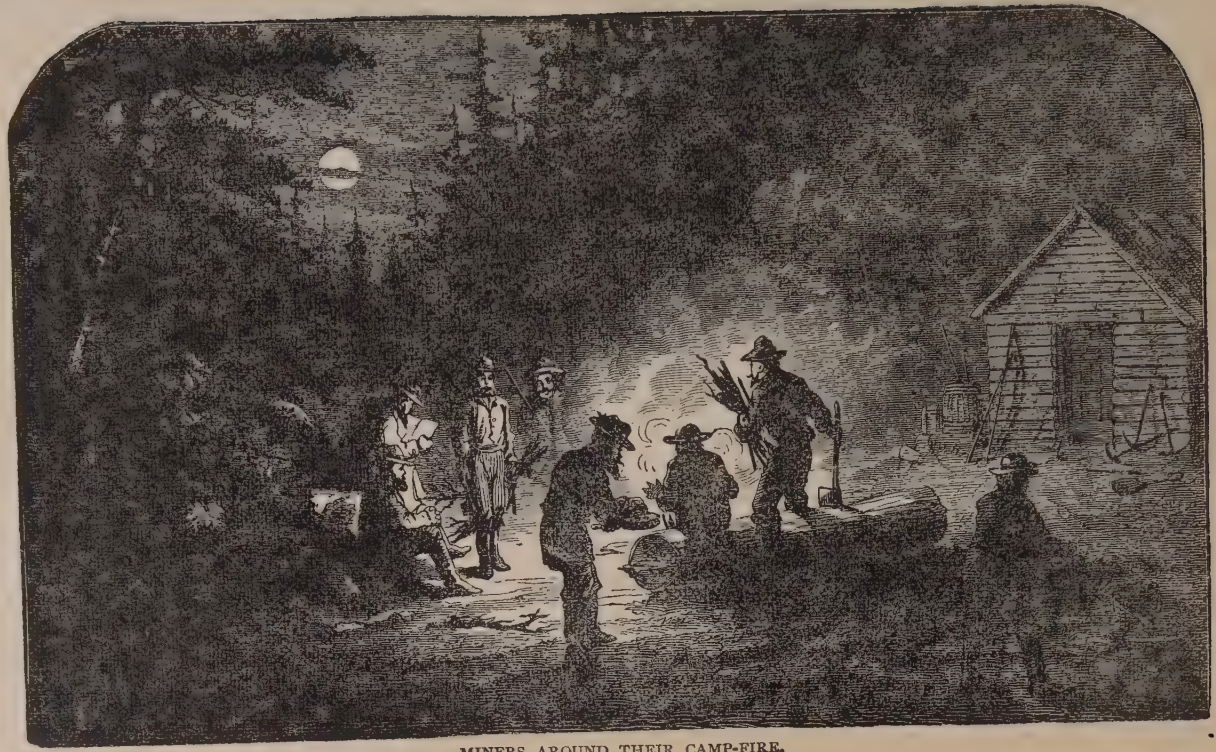
"THE Old Dominion," so distinguished as being the native State of the Father of American Liberty, and the "Mother of Presidents," really seemed at one time to be peculiarly favorable to the birth and development of statesmen. It has furnished no less than five Presidents, among whom are Washington, Monroe, Madison and Jefferson. It was the first Colony, on the Continent, settled by the English. In 1607, a company formed under the patronage of James I. obtained a grant to make settlements in America, between the 34th and 38th degrees of north latitude. In May, 1607, a colony of one hundred and five persons, under direction of this company, arrived off the coast of South Virginia. Their intention had been to form a settlement on Roanoke, now in North Carolina; but being driven north by a violent storm, they discovered and entered the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Passing up this bay they named its capes Henry and Charles, in honor of the king's two sons. They were commanded by Capt. Christopher Newport, an experienced navigator. Passing up James River, they arrived at a peninsula, upon which they landed and established Jamestown.

After promulgating a code of laws which had been formed by the London company, Capt. Newport sailed for England, leaving the colony under the care of Capt. John Smith, whose subsequent relations to the settlement became so important, and without whose efforts the enterprise would doubtless have proved a failure. The colonists seem to have been very poorly adapted to the labor required at their hands. Too many of them were *gentlemen*, and came, it appears, only to enrich themselves by gathering gold, which, they had heard, was very abundant.

The State is especially rich in mineral resources, which are yet but slightly developed. Gold is found in many parts of it, and its copper ore is very rich. Iron is abundant, while immense beds, apparently inexhaustible, of both bituminous and anthracite coal are found in the mountain region, and in and beyond the valley. Salt springs of excellent quality are numerous. Fruits, grain and vegetables of every variety are raised in the State, and the soil is productive. Her commerce in tobacco, flour, oysters and cotton was very valuable previous to the war, and is rapidly improving at present; and in manufactories—cotton, woolen, leather, iron, steam engines and machinery, lumber, flour, salt and tobacco, she was in advance of many of her sister States.

There is no better water power in the world than in Virginia, and on this account she must some day be one of our first manufacturing States. Her internal improvements are fully medium. The free school system has been fairly established, while some of the colleges are in a most prosperous condition and unsurpassed for the advantages they afford. The Washington-Lee University is very old, dating back of the revolutionary war. It was endowed and opened by Washington, and after the war of 1861 it was reopened by Gen. Lee, who was its president. After his death it was given his name, in addition to that of Washington.

Virginia is also one of the original thirteen States, and had an area previous to the division in 1862, of 61,352 square miles, equal to 39,265,280 acres, but after West Virginia was set off as a separate State, there were but 38,352 square miles left of this once great State, equal to 24,545,280 acres.



MINERS AROUND THEIR CAMP-FIRE.

The population in 1860 amounted to 1,596,318, which entitles the State to nine Members of Congress. By the division the number of Representatives was cut down to nine; the new State receiving three out of the twelve. Population in 1870, 1,224,830.

Virginia lies in the fourth judicial circuit, which by the act of 1866, was composed of this State, Maryland, West Virginia, and North Carolina and South Carolina. There were two judicial districts in this State, anterior to the division; the Eastern and the Western. There is now but one.

There were also twelve collection districts in this State, and twelve ports of entry, all of which remain the same as they were before West Virginia was cut off, for they were all located on the Atlantic coast, or on the bays and rivers running into the Atlantic Ocean; there are also ten ports of delivery.

Richmond is the capital. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the first Monday in December.

WEST VIRGINIA.

THE State of West Virginia was separated from the "Old Dominion" in May, 1861, and a convention met at Wheeling in November of the same year, to draft a constitution. On the 31st of Dec. 1867, Congress passed an act admitting the new State into the Union on an equal footing with the original States; allowing them three Representatives in the House.

The scenery is very beautiful, wild and picturesque; while at Harper's Ferry it is grand beyond the power of the most graphic pen to describe. At this place, on the Maryland side, it is said that nature, with a mighty chisel and master hand has carved, from a bold, protruding rock, a likeness of Washington, so true and faithful a likeness of the noble patriot that any one observes it at a glance.

West Virginia covers an area of 23,000 square miles. Wheeling, the capital, is situated in Ohio county, on the eastern shore of the Ohio River.

The most valuable mineral in West Virginia is bituminous coal, which lies in stratas from four to six feet deep, very near the surface in almost any part of the country. Iron also is abundant, as is timber, of the best varieties. She has not less than 500 miles of completed railroad, and enterprise in this direction is active. Manufactures are also making rapid progress, and becoming an important feature of the State. The population of West Virginia is 442,012. The climate is pleasant and mild, and the soil good—all of the country being adapted either to grazing or grain.

It has an area of 23,000 square miles, or 14,720,000 acres.

This State has now three Members of Congress.. West Virginia was subsequently put into the fourth judicial circuit, and constitutes one judicial district. Parkersburg, also, was made a port of delivery.

Charleston is the capital. The State election is held on the fourth Thursday in October. The Legislature meets on the second Tuesday in January.

THE CAROLINAS.

IN the year 1563, the coast of Carolina was explored, and named after Charles IX. of France. The first attempt to settle it was made by the celebrated and accomplished Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1585, twenty-two years before the settlement of Jamestown, and thirty-five years before the Puritans landed at Plymouth. This effort failed, on account of the incapacity of the Governor appointed by Raleigh, and the ill-behavior of the colonists toward the natives.

The first successful attempt was made sometime between 1640 and 1650, under the direction of Governor Berkley. The settlement was made in Albemarle county, by a few Virginia planters. In 1663, a large tract of land, lying between the 30th and 36th degrees of north latitude, having the Atlantic Ocean for its eastern boundary, was conveyed by Charles II. to Lord Clarendon and associates, under whose auspices a settlement was made near the mouth of Cape Fear River, in the year 1665, by emigrants from Barbadoes. Sir James Yeomans was appointed Governor. A settlement was made at Port Royal, South Carolina, in 1670; and in 1671, a few persons located at what was then called Old Charleston, which place was abandoned in 1680, and the foundation of the present city of Charleston laid, several miles nearer the sea.

All the various settlements here mentioned went under the general name of Carolina, until 1571, when a division was made, and the northern and southern portions were called by their distinctive names, North and South Carolina. These States were the scenes of many revolutionary tragedies. South Carolina, in particular,

although the home of Sumter, and Marion, and Rutledge, was replete with tories (royalists), who spared no efforts to annoy the infant republic, and play into the hands of the British Government. South Carolina ratified the Constitution May 23, 1788, but threatened to break the compact in 1832, and was only prevented by the stern will of President Jackson.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOTH the soil and climate of North Carolina are highly favorable to the production of fruit, grain and vegetables. The most important are wheat, corn, rye, oats, potatoes, yams, rice, peas, tobacco, cotton, grapes and turpentine. Albemarle Sound fisheries are quite important, and 100,000 barrels are taken from these waters alone annually.

The minerals consist of iron, coal, copper, gold, silver, plumbago, lead, marble, agolmatolite, soapstone, mangonese, limestone, whetstone, grindstone, slate, porcelain and pipe clay. A chain of silver and lead mines extend through the entire center of the State. Population 1,071,404.

The manufactures are lumber, iron, paper, spirits of turpentine, wool and cotton. The exports of the State are quite extensive, and since the close of the war, a very large trade has sprung up, which is being rapidly increased.

Education, encouraged by the people, is making rapid forward strides.

This is one of the original thirteen States, and has an area of 50,704 square miles, equal to 32,450,560 acres, with a population of 1,069,614 (one-third colored), and entitled to eight members of Congress. North Carolina, by act of 1866, was located in the fourth judicial circuit, which is composed of Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, and is divided into three judicial districts, called the districts of Al-

bemarle, Pamlico, and Cape Fear. The collection districts, and the ports of entry and delivery in this State have been so often modified and discontinued that there is some uncertainty as o the number. There are, as near as we can determine, ten districts, ten ports of entry, and nine ports of delivery.

Raleigh is the capital. There the Legislature meets biennially on the first Monday in November. The State election is held on the first Thursday in August.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE climate of this Italy of the New World, is so beautiful as to leave nothing to be desired. The soil is so varied as to produce all the products of the north and of the tropics. Cotton, both long and short staple, rice—swamp and upland—sugar, indigo, and tobacoo—oats, wheat, rye, millet and corn—peas, buckwheat, barley, broomcorn, sorghum, beans, guinea corn, sunflower, sweet and Irish potatoes, hops, flax and hemp grow luxuriantly; while, in a wild or cultivated state, nearly every known fruit, berry and nut, are produced abundantly. Manufactures are not very much engaged in, but the State possesses facilities for carrying on almost every branch of it.

With the products of every land growing at their own door, with fuel and water power in abundance there is nothing to prevent her from becoming one of the first manufacturing States in the Union. I will quote a paragraph from a recent State publication: "We have the cotton growing in our broad fields beside streams which furnish mill sites and water power; we have iron ore in abundance, and fuel ready at hand, to make our own metal and build our own machinery, we have the clay for stoneware and pottery, and the fine kaolin for porcelain silica for glass, fine grained and hard woods in our noble forests for all varieties of

cabinet work, and an excellent and ever ready market for all our products." In addition to this they have connection, either by water or rail, with all the world; and railroad stations are of easy access from every part of the state. The future of this favored State should, and doubtless will be very bright. Its population is 705,163.

South Carolina is one of the original thirteen States, and has an area of 29,385 square miles, making 18,806,400 acres, with a population, in 1870, of 728,000, (over half colored), which gives her five Members of Congress.

By an act of 1866, South Carolina was located in the fourth judicial circuit: it is divided into two judicial districts, called the Eastern and Western.

There are three collection districts in this State and four ports of entry, to-wit: Georgetown, Charleston, Beaufort and Port Royal; but no ports of delivery.

The capital is Columbia. The State elections are held on the fourth Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the third Wednesday in October.

GEORGIA.

GENERAL James Oglethorpe, and a company of twenty-one others received, in the year 1732, from George II. of England, a grant for all the land between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers. In January, 1732, a company of one hundred and fourteen men, women and children, arrived at Charleston, S. C., destined for Georgia. They were kindly treated by the Charlestonians, and were greatly assisted by them in their labor of forming a colony. The first laws made for the province

by the twenty-two grantees, prohibited the importation of rum, trade with the Indians, and the use of negroes. They also provided that lands should go back to the original owners in case the purchaser had no male heirs. Although the first, second, and third of these provisions were undoubtedly wholesome, the fourth was highly objectionable, and tended very much to retard the progress of the colony. In the year 1740 General Oglethorpe, as commander-in-chief of the forces in Georgia, at the head of two thousand men, invaded Florida with the intention of forcibly annexing it to Georgia; but he was soon repelled from the territory, and returned home bootless. The Spanish, in turn, with two sail of vessels and three thousand men, invaded Georgia in 1742, and were likewise forced to return home thwarted. The progress of this colony was for many years very slow; the people manifesting that indolence and indifference which are anything now but a characteristic of Georgians. It was mainly on the side of freedom during the revolution.

The climate of Georgia is fully equal to that of any other Southern State, while the soil, rich along the coast and rivers, is poor in the pine barrens, but yields abundantly when fertilized. In the central part of the State the soil is a red loam, while in the western part it is light and sandy, productive when properly cultivated and cared for, but easily exhausted under a bad system of cultivation. Before the late war Georgia was foremost of the Southern States in her manufactures, and in every enterprise calculated to increase her wealth, but during that sad contest she was crippled to that extent that she has not yet wholly recovered. However, the energy and determination of her people are fast improving the financial condition of the State. The rivers are navigable for a great extent, and her principal towns are connected by railways. Although the last settled of the thirteen States—the youngest of the band of sisters—her rapid progress in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, education and internal improvements is a credit alike to herself and the Union.

Georgia has an area of 52,009 square miles, equal to 33,285,760 acres. She was named after George II.

The population in 1870 was 1,200,000, which entitles her to nine Representatives in Congress.

The State is in the fifth judicial circuit, and has two judicial districts; also four ports of entry—Savannah, Brunswick, St. Mary's, and Hardwicke; and two ports of delivery—Augusta and Sunbury.

The capital is Atlanta. The State election is held on the first Tuesday in August. The Legislature meets on the second Wednesday in January.

FLORIDA.

THE Peninsula States, discovered and explored by Ponce de Leon, a voyager with Columbus, and whose name was suggested to the discoverer by the abundance and beauty of its wild flora, was, from 1512 to 1819, with the exception of the interval between 1763 and 1783, a province of Spain. The first attempt to settle it was made in the year 1565, at St. Augustine, (which is said to be the oldest town in America,) by the Spaniards. This effort was attended with many difficulties, the colonists contending, for the first few years, alternately with the horrors of savage warfare and famine, at times being forced to subsist on roots and acorns. In 1819 it was transferred to the United States by treaty, which treaty was, after much delay, ratified by Spain, and with still more delay by the United States. Possession of the colony was granted the Government in July, 1821. The territory contained, in 1840, a population of 54,477, and on the 3d of March, 1845, became a State, and was received into the Union.

A chain of lakes, some of them beautiful gems, set in rank and luxuriant vegetation—tropical vines, flowers of the most exquisite color and fragrance, mosses as rare and dainty as the silver frost work of an arctic night—extends through the entire center of the

DEER HUNTING IN OREGON.

peninsula. The State lies upon the border of the tropics, and the climate, fanned as is the land by the soft sea breezes from three sides, is as mild and pleasant as is possible to imagine, and invalids are very much benefited by it. All the winter months, so rigid and tiresome in the north, the gardens of Florida are a wilderness of the most beautiful flowers, while from the orange trees, laden with their bloom and ripening fruit, the mocking-bird carols forth his richest melody, or the oriole, flitting through the dense and glossy leaves from bough to bough, dazzles you like some fiery comet that has fallen from its sphere in the cloudless blue above.

With proper drainage, the marshes, so long and still an object of aversion and contempt, might be made the richest land in America. The products are grain of different varieties. Cotton, sugar-cane, Irish and sweet potatoes, and every variety of fruit known in the tropics. The State has little or no foreign commerce, and but little attention is paid to manufactures. Railroads connect most of the principal towns, and these with most of the other States.

It was discovered on Easter Sunday, and from this, and the fact that the land was a mass of bloom, it derived its pretty and significant name—"the flowery land." The present population is 187,748.

Florida was admitted into the Union, March 3, 1845; making the twenty-seventh State. This State has an area of 59,268, square miles, equal to 37,931,520 acres. She has two Representatives in Congress.

Florida lies in the fifth judicial circuit, and forms two judicial districts; and has seven ports of entry—St. Augustine, Key West, Apalachicola, Pensacola Magnolia, St. John's River, and Fernandina; and two ports of delivery—Palatka and Bay Port.

The capital is Tallahasse. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the Tuesday after the first Monday in January.

ALABAMA.

WAS admitted to the Union on the 14th of December, 1819. It has a deep, rich soil, and in many portions a healthful climate. It remained till the Revolution a mere hunting ground of the savages. From the peace of 1783 to 1802 it was claimed by Georgia, and lands were sold to settlers and speculators accordingly. In the year 1802, Georgia ceded all her western territory to the United States for $1,250,000. In 1800, the present State of Alabama became a part of Mississippi Territory, from which it was separated when Mississippi became a State It was settled in 1711, at Mobile, by the French, being a part of the territory explored by La Salle in his Mississippi tour.

A band of fugitive Indians, weary and foot-sore, fleeing by day and by night from their pursuers, found here their first safe shelter, and we can imagine how, throwing aside the suspense and anxiety and terror under which they had been so long borne down, they flung themselves down on the green sward, under the branches of gigantic trees, and exclaimed in the fullness of their satisfaction, "Alabama!" *Here we rest.*

Some of the richest soil in the world is found here, and with but little cultivation the yield is very large. The climate varies greatly, and every degree from the temperate to the torrid zone is represented. The mineral resources of the State are vast. The entire central portion, if not, indeed, the whole of the State is underlaid with beds of coal and iron of surpassing richness. Lead, marble, ochre, and manganese are found in abundance, while chalybeate and sulphur springs are frequent. The railroads of the State were almost entirely destroyed by the war, but are rapidly recovering their prosperity and wealth. The population of Alabama is 996,992.

It has an area of 50,722 square miles, equal to 32,462,080 acres, and is entitled to eight Representatives.

It forms a part of the fifth judicial circuit, and is divided into three judicial districts, the Northern, Middle and Southern.

It has one of entry, (Mobile,) and two ports of delivery, viz.: Tuscumbia and Selma.

The capital of the State is Montgomery.

The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the third Monday in November.

MISSISSIPPI.

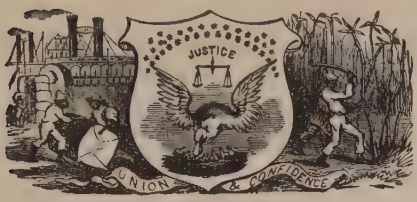
THE territory comprising the present State of Mississippi and Alabama having been divided, that portion lying next the river was, in 1817, admitted into the Union as a State under the name Mississippi, while the eastern portion was organized as a Territory, and named Alabama. The whole of this territory was explored, first by Ferdinand De Soto, and afterward by La Salle. It suffered greatly during the wars of the Natchez Indians. The Choctaws, for a long time, retained possession of the northern portion of it, and were, to some extent, civilized. Mississippi was settled by the French, in 1716, at Natches.

The northern part of the State is prairie, with a rich, black soil but in the South it is sandy. Cotton has long been the staple product, but more attention is now being paid to grain, and other branches of agriculture. Peaches and figs yield enormously; indeed the former grow wild in many parts of the State. Until lately but little attention has been paid to fruit, though all varieties grow and produce abundantly. She has no foreign commerce, and her exports and imports pass through New Orleans. Mississippi has more than a thousand miles of completed railroad. One

main line passes through the center of the State, southward to Louisiana, another crosses it from Vicksburg to the Alabama line from east to west, the road from Mobile to the Ohio River extends through almost the entire eastern part, and the great line from Memphis to Chattanooga passes through the northeast. Mississippi is thus well supplied with railroads. The old school system was one of the best in the South previous to the war, but schools were, of course, sadly broken up then. The new constitution makes very liberal allowance for educational purposes. Population 829,019.

The Territory of Mississippi became a State in 1817, making the twentieth State. The area is 47,156 square miles, equal to 30,179,840 acres. The population entitles her to six Representatives in Congress. The State lies in the fifth judicial circuit, and is divided into two judicial disiricts, viz.: the Northern and Southern districts of Mississippi. She has three ports of entry, viz.: Natchez, Vicksburg, and one near the mouth of Pearl river, to be established whenever the President may direct; also three ports of delivery, viz.: Grand Gulf, Ship Island and Columbus.

Jackson is the capital. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday, in November, and her Legislature meets biennially on the Tuesday after the first Monday in January.



LOUISIANA.

SPAIN ceded Louisiana to France in the year 1802, and it was bought by the United States of the latter power, in 1803, at a cost of $15,000,000. Governor Clayborne took possession of it the same year. It was settled by the French, at Iberville, in 1699, and was admitted into the Union April 8th, 1812. It is an important State, in that it holds the keys of entrance to the mouth of the Mississippi.

The surface of the State is low and flat, and the southern portion so very low that it always overflows when the rivers are high. There are a large number of lakes in this portion of the State, and the country here is very marshy. Numberless islands lie along the gulf coast, some of which are very fertile and beautiful. On one of them is an immense salt bed or mine, known to be nearly or quite a mile in extent—perhaps more. The depth of the strata is unknown, as they have bored down forty feet into the pure, solid salt, with no indications of the bottom.

Tropical fruits grow well here, and in the southern part fruit ripens from fall to spring, as well as from spring to fall. Oranges grow here in the greatest perfection, and the yield is enormous. A single tree often bears 5,000. Apples, peaches, pears, quinces, figs, plums, berries of all kinds, and grapes do well. Little attention has been paid to manufactures, but cotton and cane being staples, they must sometime be encouraged. Schools are supported by tax, and no appropriations by the State are allowed for the purpose of sustaining or assisting such institutions. A University in New Orleans, with law and medical department, is, however, partly sustained by the State under the new Constitution. Population 726,915.

She has an area of 46,431 square miles, equal to 29,715,840 acres. She has six Representatives in Congress.

Lousiana forms a part of the fifth judicial circuit, and constitutes two judicial districts, viz. : the eastern and western districts of Lousiana. This state has one collection district, denominated the district of New Orleans; which city is the only port of entry. The shores of the river Ohio, and all the rivers emptying into the Mississippi, are attached to the district of New Orleans, though most of them do not lie in the State. Several of the cities and towns on these rivers are made ports of delivery. Collection districts are not always confined to one State.

New Orleans is the capital. The Legislature meets on the first Monday in January, once in two years. The State election is held on the first Monday in November.

TEXAS.

PONCE DE LEON and La Salle explored the territory of Texas. After Mexico became independent of Spain, a grant which had been made to Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, comprising a large tract of this province, was confirmed by the new Republic; and, being transferred by Moses Austin, at his death, to his son Stephen, was subsequently enlarged by a further grant. Emigration from the United States was encouraged, and in 1830 nearly ten thousand Americans were settled in Texas. The prosperity of these inhabitants excited the jealousy of Mexico, and under the administration of Santa Anna, an unjust, oppressive policy was adopted toward Texas. Remonstrance proving useless, the people of the territory declared themselves independent. The revolution began in 1835, by a battle at

Gonzales, in which five hundred Texans defeated over one thousand Mexicans. Other engagements followed, the result of which was the dispersion of the Mexican army. Santa Anna now redoubled his efforts, and appearing in March, 1835, with a force of eight thousand men, several bloody battles followed. On the 21st of April, having under his immediate command one thousand and five hundred men, he was met by General Sam. Houston, with eight hundred men, and totally defeated, on the banks of the San Jacinto. Santa Anna himself was captured the next day in the woods, when he acknowledged the independence of Texas, though the Mexican Congress refused to ratify the act. Active hostilities, however, were now abandoned, and the independence of Texas was acknowledged by the United States, Great Britain and other European countries. It was in this condition of things that Texas was annexed to the United States. On the 24th of December, 1845, it was admitted into the Union, which act was ratified by the Texan Legislature July 4th, 1846. But Mexico, still regarding Texas as a revolted province, refused to acknowledge the validity of this measure. The result was a war between Mexico and the United States, which terminated on the 2d of February, 1848, in a treaty by which the latter power, in consideration of the payment of a debt of $3,500,000, due from Mexico to the citizens of Texas, acquired New Mexico, Texas, and California. The progress of Texas from this time till the eve of the great Rebellion, was almost unprecedented, no less than twenty-five thousand Germans having emigrated to that State in five years' time.

It is said that Texas has the most delicious climate of the Southern Empire—that her skies are as clear as the glowing skies of Italy—that her sunsets rival all that poet has sung of, and that the artist would go mad with despair were he to attempt to transfer to canvass the beauty in which his soul revels. The low, rich lands of southern Texas are covered with boundless profusion of the most beautiful vegetation. The climate is so healthy that it is claimed that a person born and brought up there would never die, unless they went out of the State, and in proof of this a story is told of a traveler who met very aged men, who were so hale and fresh looking as to excite wonder, while the manner in which they were hastening towards the border aroused suspicion, and they

were questioned, "Whither away?" They answered that they were tired of living and wished to die, and were going somewhere —they cared not where—to seek some happy spot where people *could* die.

The pasture lands of Texas are the very best, and stock raising is made profitable. All sorts of grain grows well here, and forests in endless quantity and variety. Decided progress has been made in internal improvements; indeed, quite wonderful when we consider how young she is, how thinly settled and under what difficulties she has labored.

Texas lies in the fifth judicial circuit, and makes two judicial districts, the eastern and western. There are three collection districts in the State. The respective ports of entry for these districts are Galveston, La Salle, and Brazos Santiago. To these are attached nine ports of delivery.

The capital is Austin. The Legislature is composed of a Senate, elected for four years, and a house of Representatives elected for two years. The sessions of the Legislature are biennial and are held in December. The Governor is elected for four years.

A BUFFALO HUNT ON THE PLAINS.

TENNESSEE,

FOR some time, was a part of North Carolina. It was made a territorial government in the year 1790, and was admitted into the Union in 1796. The first permanent white inhabitants of Tennessee went there in the year 1775, and built Fort Loudon, now in Blount county. They were, in 1760, attacked by the savages, and two hundred persons were massacred. But, in 1767, the natives were reduced to submission by Colonel Grant, and a treaty was made with them, which encouraged emigration. Settlements were formed on Holston River in 1765, which, although frequently attacked by the Indians, made very fair progress. Colonel John Sevier, with the Tennessee militia and a few Virginia soldiers, gained a decisive victory over the savages, and from this time forward, though more or less harrassed by the Indians, the progress of the State, in population and improvement, was rapid. North Carolina gave up the territory in 1789, and in 1790 Congress recognized it as a separate province. It has great extent of territory, and up to 1861, was considered as among the greatest of the agricultural States.

Its staple products are cotton, tobacco and corn. The mineral resources of Tennessee are not yet developed to any extent, but they are rich in quality, and limitless in quantity, and will be a source of boundless wealth to the State. In the mountains, easy of access, are endless stores of copper, zinc, sandstone, iron, and

the very finest marble, waiting since creation's birth for the enterprise that should tear it from the bosom of the earth and give it shapes of beauty and utility. Coal of the best quality is abundant, and gold is found in some parts of the State. Tennessee has nearly or quite two thousand miles of railroad, and though these thoroughfares were much injured by the war, the admirable energy of the people would not allow them to lie in waste, and they were accordingly rebuilt in an excellent manner. Her free schools, under the protection of the State, and liberally supported by the Government, are in a prosperous condition.

Population, 1,258,370.

This State has an area of 45,600 square miles, or 29,184,000 acres. It had a population in 1870 of 1,257,983.

The State is entitled to ten Representatives in Congress; is in the sixth judicial circuit; has three judicial districts; and has two ports of delivery—Memphis and Knoxville.

Nashville is the capital. The State election is held on the first Monday in August, and the Legislature meets on the first Monday in October, once in two years. The Legislature consists of a Senate of twenty-five members, and a House of Representatives of seventy-five members.

KENTUCKY

IN the year 1775, Daniel Boone, with a number of associates from North Carolina, settled in this State. The trials and adventures of these hardy pioneers, and especially those of Boone, constitute one of the most romantic leaves in the history of the West. For over two years, previous to 1775, Boone was busily employed in surveying Kentucky, building roads and forts. One of the latter the erected at Boonsborough, to which place he removed his family, in 1775. Boone said that his wife and daughter were the first white women who ever stood on the banks of the Kentucky River. For a number of years after Boone's settlement, he and his associates experienced many difficulties with the natives—Boone's daughter being at one time captured by the Indians, though shortly afterward rescued by her father. But, notwithstanding the difficulties with the savages, the young territory grew rapidly in population and wealth, and on June 1st, 1792, was admitted to the Union. Having a fertile soil, and affording excellent pasturage, she has far outstripped most of her southern sisters in general improvement.

The Cumberland Mountains separate Kentucky from Virginia, and furnish some very fine scenery—unsurpassed in grandeur or loveliness. One of the greatest natural curiosities in the world, the Mammoth Cave, is in Kentucky. Its extent is not yet known, since it has never been fully explored. Coal and iron are abundant, but little use has, as yet, been made of them. The best of timber and stone abound, and salt wells of fine quality give promise of considerable value. The climate is mild and healthy and the soil productive. The present population is about 1,321,711.

The area of the State is 37,680 square miles, equal to 24,115,200 acres. She is entitled to ten Representatives in Congress, is in the sixth judicial circuit and forms one judicial district, has one port of entry, Louisville, and two ports of delivery, viz.: Paducah and Columbus. Frankfort is the capital.

The State elections are held on the first Monday in August. The Legislature meets on the first Monday in December, and is composed of two houses—the Senate consisting of 38 members elected for four years; and a House of Representatives elected for two years.

OHIO.

OHIO was admitted to the Union on the 29th of November, 1802, the State containing, at the time, 72,000 inhabitants —2,000 more than was required in order to its admission. It was settled in the spring of 1788, and one year after it, with a vast additional extent of North-western territory, had been ceded, by Virginia, to the United States.

The year 1788 was a famous year for emigration. It witnessed the passage of no less than 20,000 persons down the Ohio River. The company which settled Ohio consisted of forty persons, under General Rufus Putnam. They built a stockade fort at Marietta, of sufficient strength to resist the attacks of the natives, cleared several acres of ground, and planted a crop. They were joined by twenty additional families in the autumn. Both these companies were New England people.

For a number of years they were not troubled by the savages, nor did any of their number trouble the Indians, except in one or two instances. The earliest settlers of Cincinnati arrived

there, about twenty in number, in 1760. Until the year 1765, the attempts made to settle most parts of Ohio were attended with great difficulties, on account of Indian wars. Marietta, however, formed an exception to this rule. After the general victory which General Wayne achieved over the savages during Washington's administration, the population increased rapidly. Unembarrassed by any centralizing or aristocratic institutions, possessed of the finest natural resources, and vitalized by an enterprising population, Ohio, after its admission into the Union, made an advancement of which any State might well be proud.

The great wealth of Ohio lies in her agricultural interests. The soil is rich and yields an hundred fold for the labor which is bestowed upon it. The principal minerals are coal and iron, which are very abundant, while marble and stone of a good quality are produced in large quantities.

The climate is not severe, and is remarkably healthy. Manufactures have not been made a specialty, yet they are of considerable importance and steadily growing. Ohio has about 4,000 miles of railroad, which, with its canals, add materially to the wealth of the State. She has always been awake to the interests and importance of education, and is, in this respect, one of the most prominent of our Western States. In 1860 there were 317 newspapers and periodicals published in the State, 24 of which were dailies. They had an annual circulation amounting, in the aggregate, to 71,767,742.

It has an area of 39,964 square miles, equal to 25,576,960 acres. The population in 1870 was 2,622,214, entitling her to twenty members of Congress.

It is in the sixth judicial circuit, and forms two judicial districts, the Northern and Southern.

This State has three ports of entry—Cleveland, Toledo, and Portland; and four ports of delivery, to be located where the President directs.

The capital of this State is Columbus. The State election is now held on the second Tuesday of October. The Legislature meets on the first Monday of January, biennially.

INDIANA.

ABOUT the year 1690, a French settlement, the first in Indiana, was made at Vincennes, that place being within the territory claimed at that time by the French, upon priority of discovery by La Salle. Indiana was long the residence of various Indian tribes, and the theater of Indian wars. By the terms of the treaty of the peace of 1763, it, with the rest of the North-western Territory, was ceded to Great Britain. It was still claimed by the Indians, but, by various treaties, extensive tracts were obtained for settlement. The Indians, however, retained possession of many parts of the State up to the year 1812, and to that portion known as the Indian Reserve even later. It was erected into a Territory in 1809, and on the 11th of December, 1816, was admitted into the Union. Its population—1,350,428, in the year 1860—is an indication of its progress.

The climate is mild, but changeable. The soil is rich, but as the State is comparatively new in improvements it is not yet all brought under cultivation, and has never been half tested as to its productive capacity. Its grazing advantages are so great that it must in time give its attention largely to stock and dairy products. Manufactures must also become an important branch of industry of the State, since the fine water power and unlimited coal fields strongly suggest and invite it. Nearly all the great railroad lines between the east and west cross this State, and in internal improvements Indiana is quite up to the age. Seven lines have a terminus at the capital of the State, and a dozen or less lines start from any and every given point, and run into Chicago. She has made very liberal provision for education, and her schools are a credit to the Government and people.

Indiana was the nineteenth State in the Union. She has an area of 33,809 square miles, equal to 21,637,760 acres. Her population in 1870 was 1,673,046, which entitles her to thirteen Representatives in Congress. Indiana is the seventh judicial circuit, and forms one judicial district. There is no port of entry in this State; but there are three ports of delivery, to-wit.: Evansville, New Albany and Madison, which are attached to the New Orleans collection district.

The capital is Indianapolis. The State election is held on the second Tuesday of October. The Legislature meets only once in two years, on the first Wednesday in January.

ILLINOIS.

THIS most thriving and prosperous State came into the Union on the 3d of December, 1818. Until 1809 it was a part of Indiana, at which time it became a separate territory, and so remained till received into the Union. This State has been little disturbed by civil divisions or by Indian wars. Its most serious troubles arose from the appearance within its borders of the Mormons, in 1838, and from attempts made to curb their irregularities. This singular people, believing themselves to be ill-treated, assembled to the number of 700, under their leaders, in a remote part of the State, and proposed fighting for their rights. But a body of three hundred troops marched against and captured them. The whole sect was ultimately reduced to submission and banished the State. The territory was explored by La Salle and settled by the French at Kaskaskia (the first capital of Illinois, located on the Kaskaskia River, and the present site of Vandalia), in 1720. Its growth has been immense.

Illinois is the richest agricultural State in the Union, with no waste or poor soil. The soil of the "bottoms," or river valley, extending for five or six miles back from the Mississippi River, is

made entirely of deposits from the river in times of flood; and in some cases the mold so formed is twenty-five feet deep, and of inexhaustible richness. The yield of Indian corn in these valley lands is enormous; amounting often to a hundred bushels per acre. In dairy products Illinois is surpassed by but three States in the Union—New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio.

In corn and wheat she has steadily held her position as the leading State, for the last fifteen years; while in all her other staples she is constantly increasing. Her prairies are the grandest, richest, most extensive and beautiful in the United States. Her lake trade is immense, and her river trade is very considerable. Manufactures, as compared with agriculture, holds a secondary place, yet in this she is not far behind her sister States. Bituminous coal is found in all parts of the State, lead in the western and copper in the northern part, while iron is plentiful.

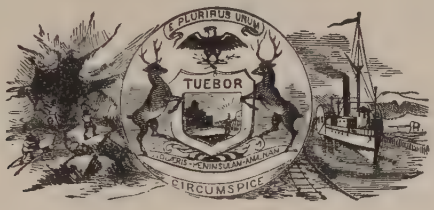
Of her railroads it might well be said that they are "legion," crossing the State in every possible direction; there are now 3990 miles, with many more in course of construction. In addition to this she has direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico by water, through a canal which unites Lake Michigan to the Illinois River. This canal, formerly only capable of carrying the common tow boat, is now being deepened and enlarged to accommodate steamers, and when completed will be one of the finest ship canals in the United States. The educational advantages of the State are in proportion to the wealth and advancement of the State. It was settled by the French, about the year 1693. The principal city, from a commercial point of view, is Chicago, and though its rapid growth and great wealth had given it a reputation world wide, the destruction of the city by fire Oct. 9, 1871, rousing as it did all the sympathy of individuals and nations, gave it a place through this in every heart. The harbor is one of the best on the lakes, and is being much improved. It is the largest grain market in the world, and although Cincinnati was formerly christened, in an irreverent way, "Porkopolis," Chicago long since surpassed it in pork packing and shipping. In every respect Illinois is one of the first States in the Union. Her population is 2,598,400.

The area of the State is 55,405 square miles, equal to 35,459,200 acres.

PROCURING POISON FOR HIS ARROWS.

(The murderous Apache, holds the fresh liver of the Deer to the Rattlesnake, dips his arrow points in it, or drying, powders and retains for future use.)

The State is entitled to nineteen Representatives in Congress, and forms a part of the seventh judicial circuit. It forms two judicial districts, viz.: the northern and southern. It has one port of entry, Chicago, and four ports of delivery, viz.: Alton, Quincy, Cairo, and Peoria. The capital is Springfield. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets biennially on the first Monday in January.



MICHIGAN

WAS admitted into the Union January 26th, 1837. It had the requisite population (60,000) before this, but there were some difficulties in the way of its admission. In 1837 it contained 200,000; in 1840, 212,267, and in 1850, 851,470. The territory, when first discovered by the whites, contained a tribe of Indians called Hurons by the French, and Iroquois by the Indians themselves. Many of them were converted to Christianity, by the untiring labors of Catholic missionaries, as early as 1648. It was not, however, till 1670 that the French took possession of the territory. It was a portion of the extensive tract explored by the assiduous, daring La Salle. Its progress, while it belonged to the French, was very slow. It was not until 1763, when, by treaty, it was ceded to Great Britain, that much was done in the way of civilizing and improving it. Comparatively little, in fact, was done until 1783, when the territory was ceded by England to the United States. Until 1800 it was, for purposes of Government, considered a part of the Great Northwestern Territory. After Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had been

severally detached, the remainder, in 1805, became a distinct territory, the first Governor of which was General Hull, by appointment of President Jefferson. Michigan suffered much from the war of 1812. For about two years nearly the whole territory was the theater of sanguinary conflicts. It was exposed to the barbarity of the enemy and their Indian allies. Since then, however, its enterprising inhabitants have brought it up to a degree of improvement which few States of its age can boast.

The minerals of this State are copper, silver, iron and slate. Her copper mines are the richest in the world, lying in an unbroken belt of 120 miles in length, and from three to six in width. Michigan's contribution to the material for the Washington monument at the National Capital was a magnificent block of pure copper ore. A number of such blocks have been uncovered weighing from one to two hundred tons each.

The salt springs of the State are very good, yielding a large per centage of salt of the first-class. The northern part of the State is heavily wooded, and millions of feet of lumber are shipped annually. The soil in the southern part is rich and productive. Grain, flour, lumber, copper, wool and pork are exported, and owing to her excellent harbors which lie along the northern shore, and the wealth and enterprise of the State, her commerce must be considerable.

The principal towns have railroad communication with all parts of the Union. Her system of education is good, and the liberality of the State is very encouraging. The population, rapidly increasing for the last ten years, numbers 1,184,059.

The area is 56,243 square miles, equal to 35,995,520 acres. The population entitles her to nine Representatives in Congress. By an act of 1866, Michigan was located in the sixth judicial circuit, and forms two judicial districts, and has four collection districts and four ports of entry, viz.: Detroit, Port Huron, Grand Haven, and Michilimackinac; also five ports of delivery (if the President deems them necessary).

The capital is Lansing. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets biennially on the first Wednesday in January.

WISCONSIN

WAS admitted into the Union May 29th, 1848. It was a part of the extensive territory ceded by France to Great Britain in the treaty of 1763. At the close of the Revolution it was given up by Great Britain to the United States. It was erected into a territory in 1836, the portion now forming the State of Iowa being detached in 1838. Its natural resources are extraordinary, the climate being very healthful, and the soil unsurpassed in fertility. It was settled in the year 1669, at Green Bay, by the French.

Wisconsin has a large commerce which, with its rich soil, vast lumber fields, extensive mines of copper and lead, and its unsurpassed harbors and railroads, must necessarily increase. Its excellent water power is of great advantage to manufacturers and though yet in their infancy, the day is not far distant when they will be developed and be a source of wealth to the State. Her internal improvements consist of about 1500 miles of completed railroad, and the Portage Canal, which connects the Wisconsin with Lake Winnebago, and was constructed by appropriations from the Government. Education receives more attention than in many older States, and its colleges, seven in number, are all in a fine condition. The population of the State is 1,055,133.

It has an area of 52,924 square miles, equal to 34,511,360 acres and eight members of Congress. Wisconsin lies in the seventh judicial circuit (which is composed of Wisconsin, Indiana and Illinois), and forms one judicial district. It has one collection district, one port of entry (Milwaukee,) and five ports of delivery, viz.; Southport, Racine, Sheboygan, Green Bay and Depère.

The capital of the State is Madison. The Legislature meets on the second Wednesday in January. The State election is on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

MINNESOTA

LIES north of Iowa, and extends to the Canadian boundary. On the north-east it touches Lake Superior, and, to the west, is bounded by Dakota Territory. It comprises the head waters of the Mississippi, and abounds in rivers and lakes, teeming with fish. Its soil is highly prolific, and its forests are among the finest in the world. Its name is derived from Minnisotah, the name of St. Peter's River. Primarily discovered by La Salle, it, for some years, belonged to the French, and at a very early period was traversed by their traders and soldiers. It was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of 1763, and to the United States at the peace of 1783. It received a territorial government in 1849, and was admitted into the Union in May, 1858.

The minerals of the State are not valuable, except its iron and coal. Timber is abundant, and the water-power equal to that in the best manufacturing States of the East. Lake Superior, on the eastern shore, has some fine harbors and affords unexceled shipping facilities. Its climate is remarkably healthy, its soil rich and productive, and its educational advantages very superior. She has a permanent school fund of near $3,000,000, and land enough donated by the Government to increase the fund to $15,000,000. St. Paul is the capital of the State, and a beautiful and rapidly growing city. The bluff upon which it is built is terraced, and the streets are wide and clean. The population of the State at the last census was 439,706.

It has an area of 83,531 square miles, equal to 53,459,840 acres. This State is entitled to three members of Congress.

It lies in the eight judicial circuit, which is composed of Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Arkansas and Minnesota. Minnesota forms one judicial district, and has no ports of entry or delivery.

The Legislature meets annually on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The State election is held on the Tuesday afrer the first Monday in January.

IOWA.

THIS State derives its name from the Indians. It was included in the Louisiana purchase. It was first settled at Dubuque, by the French, in the year 1686. This settlement, however, does not seem to have been permanent, nor productive of any real good to the territory. In 1833 Burlington was settled by emigrants from the Eastern States. It formed a part of Missouri from 1804 to 1821, when it was included in Michigan Territory; subsequently belonged to Wisconsin Territory, and was admitted into the Union March 3d, 1845. It is a highly prosperous State, having a vast extent of rich soil and excellent pasturage.

The climate is mild and healthy, and the surface of the country mostly a fine, rolling prairie. It possesses valuable and extensive lead mines, and an excellent quality of coal underlies almost the entire State, so near the surface as to be easy of access. Building stone is abundant, corn, wheat, oats, hay, rye, barley and buckwheat are grown in all parts of the State, but corn is the staple agricultural product, and in 1869 it produced nearly 80,000,000 of bushels. But little, comparatively, is yet being done in manufactures. Iowa has already 1350 miles of railroad, and Council Bluffs is the terminus of all the lines connecting with the Pacific

Railroad. Like all prairie States, the building of these roads requires so little outlay of capital that almost every section of the State is accommodated. Education is receiving a fair share of attention, and the school fund and tax are adequate to meet the wants of the schools, and now exceeds two million of dollars. The emigration to that State has been great, especially within the last few years. It is a large and every way flourishing State. The population is 1,191,725.

Iowa was the twenty-eighth State, on its admission, in 1845. It has an area of 55,045 square miles, equal to 35,228,800 acres. The population entitles her to nine Representatives in Congress. This State lies in the eight judicial circuit, and makes one judicial district. She has no port of entry, and but three of delivery, to-wit.: Burlington, Keokuk, and Dubuque; all of which are attached to the collection district of New Orleans, in the State of Lousiana.

Des Moines is the capital. The State election is held on the second Tuesday of October. The Legislature meets biennially on the second Monday in January.

MISSOURI.

THIS great Iron producing State was admitted into the Union on the 10th of August, 1821. It, with all the territory then belonging to the United States, west of the Mississippi, was included in the purchase of Louisiana, made in 1803. Louisiana afterward was divided into Orleans Territory, Louisiana proper, and Missouri Territory. In 1817, Missouri Territory was divided into Arkansas, on the south, and Missouri on the north; and it was about this time that the latter took the requisite steps toward forming a State Constitution. It will be remembered that this is the State, the discussion of the propriety of the admission of which raised such a storm in Congress in 1820.

The soil and climate of Missouri are varied, resembling both the North and the South. There are rich valleys, and poor uplands, prairie and timber, marshes and dry sandy tracts. It is rich in mineral wealth, which as yet has received little or no attention, except its iron, which is already a source of wealth to the State. Sandstone and marble are abundant. A very large river trade is carried on by the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, which constitute their entire means of communication by water. The principal manufactures of the State are located in St. Louis, which is one of the most important commercial cities in the Union. It has railroads which reach all the principal towns in the West, and it is also connected by the railroads of Illinois with the cities of the East. The State is making abundant provision for its schools, and St. Louis is far ahead of other cities in this respect. Her schools have an enviable reputation, and are supported independent of the State.

This State has an area of 67,380 square miles, equal to 43,123,200 acres.

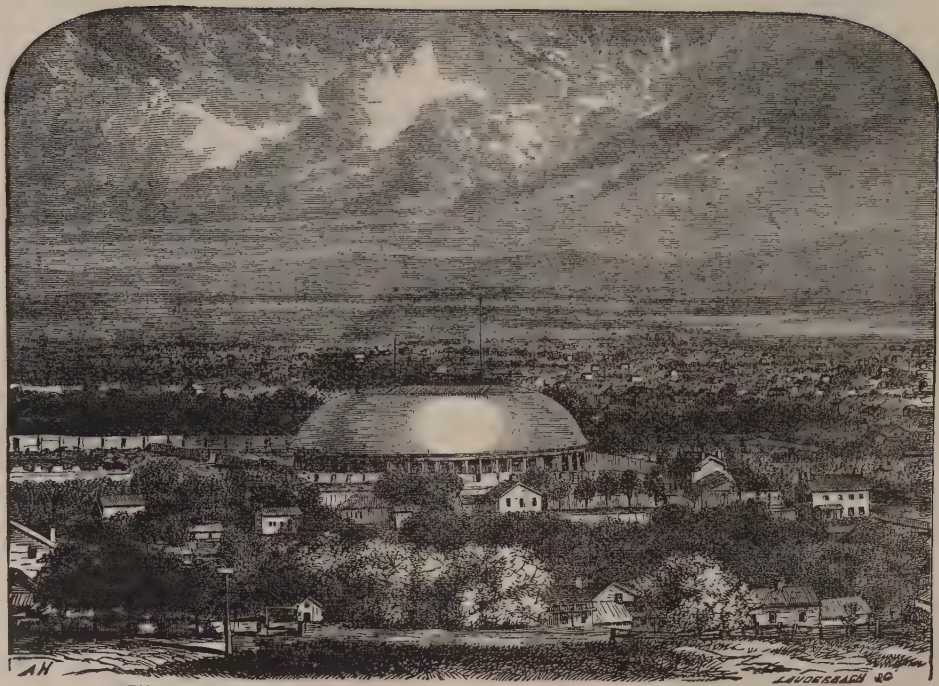
Her population in 1870 was 1,715,000, entitling her to thirteen Representatives in Congress.

This State is in the eighth judicial circuit; and forms two judicial districts, the Eastern and Western. It has no port of entry and but one port of delivery, Hannibal.

The capital is Jefferson City. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, and the Legislature meets on the last Monday in December.

ARKANSAS.

THIS State lies south of Missouri, and was once attached to it. It has a fine climate and prolific soil. The first settlement of whites within its limits was made at Arkansas Post, in the year 1685. The earlier inhabitants were French. Its progress, for many years, was very slow. It was not till about the year 1826 that the tide of emigration began to flow from the Atlantic States in that direction. Little Rock, the early seat of government and the present capital, was laid out in the year 1820, during which year the first steamboat ascended the Arkansas River. The boat was eight days in going from New Orleans to the village of Arkansas—a distance of scarcely one hundred miles above the mouth of the Arkansas River. The State once contained the remnants of several powerful tribes of Indians. By a treaty made between the Cherokees and the United States, the former agreed to give up all their lands east of the Mississippi River, and to retire to a region guaranteed to them in the present State of Arkansas.



GENERAL VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY, SHOWING THE MORMON TABERNACLE.

JOSEPH SMITH,
Founder of the Mormon Church.

BRIGHAM YOUNG, HEAD OF THE MORMON CHURCH.

JOSEPH F. SMITH.
(Nephew of Jo. Smith, Jr., and one of the Twelve Apostles.)

MRS. ALICE YOUNG CLAWSON.
(Brigham Young's eldest daughter—an actress. Herself and her two sisters are married to H. B. Clawson.)

The present Constitution of Arkansas was adopted in 1868, since which time she can be said to be in a flourishing condition. With a good soil, so rich as to yield abundantly with small outlay of money or labor, with a climate that was all that could be asked, it has yet never made rapid progress. It has no manufactures, but will some day rank high amongst our mining States. Coal, lead, zinc, iron, manganese, salt and marble are found in great quantities; indeed, in manganese it exceeds every other State, and in zinc is exceeded only by New Jersey. Gold and silver have been found in several counties, and silver is found in the lead mines in considerable quantities. It has quarries of the finest oil-stone in the world, and an inexhaustible supply of the most exquisitely white alabaster. Its hot springs possess medicinal qualities which will, when understood, render them a very popular resort for invalids. The new Constitution makes ample provision for schools, and education is receiving considerable attention. The population of the State is about 600,000.

It has an area of 52,193 square miles, equal to 33,406,720 acres. The population entitles the State to four Representatives in Congress.

This State lies in the eighth judicial circuit and forms two judicial districts, the eastern and western. It has no ports of entry or delivery.

The capital of the State is Little Rock. She holds her State election the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets but once in two years, on the first Monday in January.

KANSAS.

ABOUT the development of this young State cluster some of the most important events of American history. Its territorial organization, by the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, in 1854, re-opened the agitation of the slavery question, which, seeming to have acquired fresh vigor and virulence from the sleep it had enjoyed under the Missouri Compromise, thoroughly aroused the old animosities between the pro-and anti-slavery elements of our national politics. From 1854 to 1857 it was the theater of political tragedies, the bare mention of which may well put the blush of shame upon even the most fool-hardy partisan.

The Territory made application to Congress, in 1857, for a place in the Union, but the Constitution under which it asked admission (the one framed at Lecompton) was known to be a fraudulent affair, and hence Kansas was rejected. The discussion of this Constitution caused a permanent division of the Democratic party. The Constitution was rejected by the people of Kansas by a majority of 10,000. Kansas was, however, received into the Union, in 1861, under a free State Constitution, formed at Topeka.

The surface of the country is uniform, with no mountains, sloughs, swamps, marsh lands or lakes. The soil is rich and productive, the climate mild and healthy. For all agricultural products it is one of the finest States west of the Mississippi. Corn and all small grains yield abundantly. It promises also to be a great fruit State when older. Rapid progress is being made in internal improve-

ments, and besides nearly a thousand miles of completed railroad, others are being pushed forward to completion with great energy. In consideration of her means, age and population, Kansas has done a great deal for education. There is a school fund, public lands have been donated, and taxes are levied for the support of the public schools.

Coal, sandstone, limestone and marble are found in all parts of the State, and in some sections timber of fine quality is abundant. There are a large number of salt springs and sulphur springs also abound. Topeka is the capital of the State and signifies "Potato," great quantities of which grow wild in the vicinity The last census gives its population at 364,477.

Kansas has an area of 78,841 square miles, equal to 50,187,520 acres. The population gives her three Representatives in Congress. This State is in the eighth judicial circuit, and forms one judicial district. It has no ports of entry or delivery.

Topeka is the capital. The State election is held on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The Legislature meets on the second Tuesday in January.

NEBRASKA.

NEBRASKA was organized into a territory in 1850. The first settlers were Americans. In the last few years it has increased in wealth and population more rapidly than any of the adjoining States or Territories. Probably the chief cause of this has been occasioned by the Pacific Railroad passing directly through the State from east to west. It is impossible, at the present time, to estimate the advantage it will be to the State in developing its resources. The value of its minerals in the western portion of the State is incalculable. It has fair prospects of becoming one of the richest mineral and agricultural States in the Union. Omaha, the capital, is a city of considerable commercial importance, being located at the junction of the Missouri River and the Pacific Railroad. In 1866 the Territory applied for admission into the Union, but, on account of the word "white" being used in its Constitution, it was rejected. The word was then stricken out, after which it was admitted, February, 1867, the bill for admission having been passed over the President's veto.

Every thing indicates that stock raising and dairy farming will be the leading feature in agriculture, the state being better adapted to growing grass than grains, yet producing these well, especially in the eastern part, where the soil is very fertile. The State has no public debt to retard its growth. A generous provision has been made for schools, and one-sixteenth of the public land of the State, 2,500,000 acres, set apart to be sold for securing a school fund. Ninety thousand acres were given to endow a State Agricultural College, and a State University was also endowed with 46,081 acres. According to the last census, the population is 122,993.

On its admission, in 1867, it was the thirty-seventh State. It has an area of 122,007 square miles, or 78,084,480 acres. It forms the ninth judicial district, has no ports of entry or delivery.

The capital is Lincoln. The State election is held on the second Tuesday in October. The Legislature meets on the Tuesday after the first Monday in January.

NEVADA.

THIS Territory having formed a State Constitution, under an enabling act previously passed by Congress, was admitted as a member of the Federal Union, on an equal footing with the original States. The State convention was held at so late a period of the year that it was necessary to telegraph the Constitution, in order that it might be received there in time to secure the admission of the State previous to the Presidential election. Immediately upon its reception, President Lincoln issued a proclamation, dated October 31st, A. D. 1864, in which he "declared and proclaimed that the said State of Nevada is admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original States," etc. The vote of the State at the Presidential election, in 1864, was 16,420.

Nevada possesses some of the most magnificent scenery in the world and some natural curiosities worthy of mention; amongst these is Lake Mono, with water so sharply acid and bitter that it can not be swallowed, and cloth fabrics or leather immersed in its waters are destroyed in an incredibly short space of time. No fish or animal can exist in its motionless depth—no water-fowl ever leaves its bosom or dips its wing, or skims lightly over the surface that is never lashed into fury by the storms, and that only the strongest winds can ruffle. It is a very Marah of bitterness—a Dead Sea of isolation—locked in by towering crags, surrounded by shadow and gloom.

The silver mines of Nevada are the richest in the world. For the year 1867 it is estimated that Nevada yielded 20,000,000 of dollars, of which the Comstock lode yielded 17,500,000. The product of this mine for five years amounts to $60,000,000. Salt and alkali are abundant. The climate is healthy, divided, as in California, into a wet and a dry season. The soil is poor, and agriculture receives little attention.

Education has been almost entirely neglected, but measures are being taken to establish schools on the same plan as in the other States. Population last census 42,491.

It has an area of 63,473 square miles, or 40,622,720 acres. The population in 1860, while yet a Territory, was 6,857. In conformity with the Constitutional provision that every State shall have one Representative in Congress, Nevada has one. This State lies in the ninth judicial circuit, and forms one judicial district, called the district of Nevada.

CALIFORNIA

WAS admitted into the Union on the 7th of September, 1850. The alarming discussion which occurred upon the question of admission was what gave rise to the compromise measures of 1850, popularly styled the *Omnibus Bill.*

General Fremont, with a small but dauntless band of rangers, conquered California in 1846, having defeated, on frequent occasions, vastly superior forces of Mexicans. Its resources as a farming country early attracted attention. But when, in February, 1848, it was published that gold in quantities had been found on a branch of the Sacramento, the swarm of emigrants which rushed in, comprising representatives from every State in the Union, and from nearly all the nations of Europe, was almost incalculable.

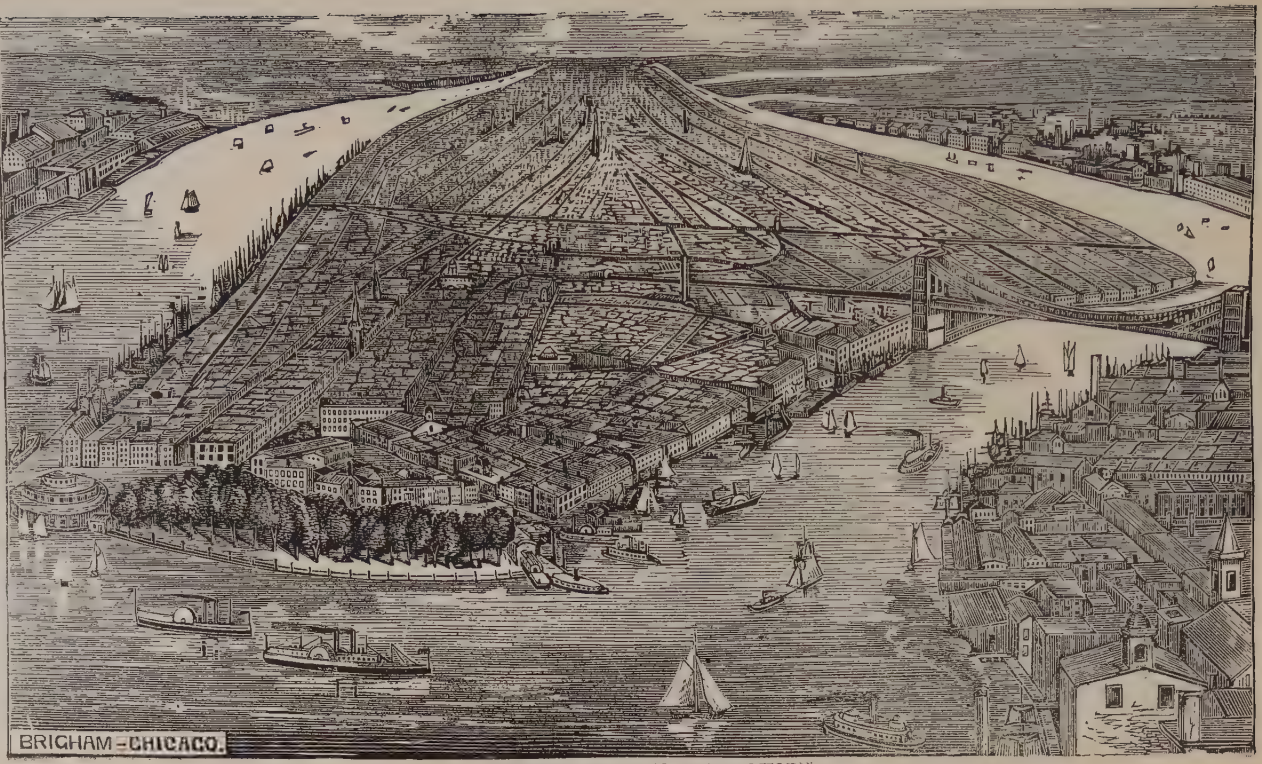
From a small village, San Francisco was rapidly inflated to a large city In many places towns sprang up like mushrooms. Owing to the fact that its population had been thrown hastily together, from so many places, and in consequence of the want of a government, California was, for some time, the scene of many dark crimes and hideous outrages. Never was the want of wholesome legal restraint more keenly felt than here. The Constitution of California was framed by a convention of delegates in 1849.

It is a wild and broken country, mountainous and rugged, traversed by both the Sierra Nevadas and the coast range. The valleys, long neglected for the mines, are again being cultivated and brought to a high degree of fertility and productiveness. The gold mines are too well known to need any description. They furnish annually to the Government seventy to eighty million dollars in gold. The climate of California varies greatly —from extreme cold in the north, and at great elevations, to tropical warmth and softness in the south. There are heavy rains in November and December, which deluge and saturate the land. Winter they have none; and at all seasons of the year tropical plants grow and blossom in the open air, attaining a size that seems incredible. Grape culture is rapidly assuming an importance which may well warn Europeans to "look to their laurels," since the flavor of California wine is pronounced equal to that of their best brands. Thousands of tons are now being shipped east annually, and their pears, luscious and rich as none others in the world are found in the market of almost every city in the Union. Almost every known fruit grows here, and it bids fair to be the greatest fruit State in America. The commerce of California is immense; and extends to all parts of the globe. In the matter of gold alone, from 1858 to 1868, $826,873,738.11 were exported, and in the last named year, nearly a million barrels of flour. In 1870 there were 800 miles of railroad in operation, and many new roads not yet completed. In the matter of education she has been generous and energetic, and, aware of its importance, has made ample provision. The school fund is $725,000, and in 1867 the State expended for educational purposes $1,168,000. The last census reports the population 500,223.

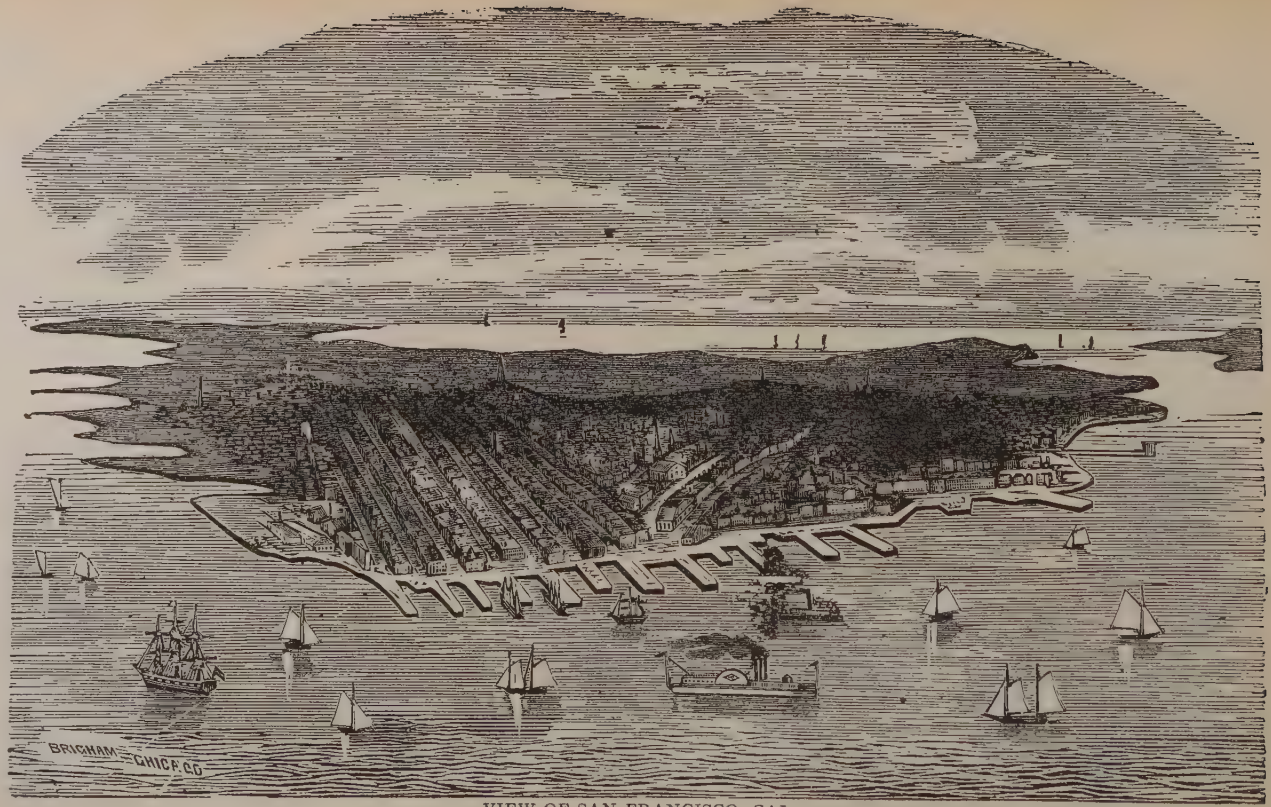
California was the thirty-first State. It has an area of 188,982 square miles, equal to 120,948,480 acres. The Population in 1870 was 560,285, entitling her to four Representatives in Congress.

By act of 1866, this State, with Oregon and Nevada, constitutes the ninth judicial circuit, and forms two judicial districts. California has seven ports of entry, viz.: San Francisco, Monterey, San Diego, Sacramento, Sonoma, San Joaquin and San Pedro; also, one port of delivery, Santa Barbara. California was obtained from Mexico by conquest in 1846.

The capital is Sacramento. She holds her State election on the first Tuesday in September. Her Legislature meets on the first Monday in December, but meets only once in two years.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF NEW-YORK.



VIEW OF SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

COLORADO.

WAS formed from parts of Kansas, Nebraska and Utah. Its Territorial government was organized by act Congress, March 2, 1861. It is situated west of Kansas, on the great route from the Pacific to the Atlantic States, and on the dividing ridge, or backbone, of the continent. The rivers that find their head waters within the territory run southeast and south to the Gulf of Mexico, and southwest to the Gulf of California. The surface is nearly equally divided between a plain, gently descending from the abrupt mountain wall of rock constituting the eastern flank of the Rocky Mountains, and the mighty mass of that chain, with its peaks, rising nearly three miles above the surface of the sea, now forming an elevated plateau, and again sending off spurs and lateral ranges containing beautiful valleys, or, in a more lavish and genial mood, taking a wide circuit inclosing an immense sunken plain containing hundreds of square miles of charming, well watered farming land called parks. Of these there are seven. It is a magnificent region, and contains all the elements of extreme mineral and agricultural wealth. It has mines of gold, silver, copper, lead and iron. Coal abounds in all parts, oil flows from the wells with a little encouragement, and salt is easily obtained in some parts. An immense soda fountain is found near Colorado City, called Fountaine qui Bouille (boiling fountain) and there are indications of cinnebar platina, and precious stones.

The climate is fine, the general temperature like Southern Pennsylvania or Maryland; and, from the elevation, the air is very dry and pure. The plain rises by imperceptible degrees to

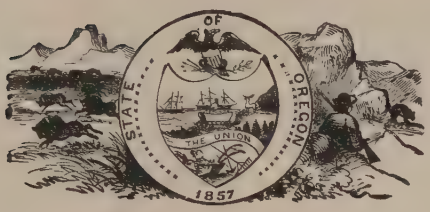
5000 feet (about one mile) above the level of the sea, at the foot of the mountains. The numerous valleys, the parks, and much of the sloping plain, form as fine an agricultural region, with proper irrigation, as any State possesses, an much of the remainder furnishes excellent pasturage through the entire year. Occasionally heavy snow falls and for a few days extreme cold prevails, but these are exceptional years; and it does not lie long. Its effects can be guarded against with prudent care. Corn, wheat, and other small grains and vegetables reach their greatest perfection here.

It furnishes excellent manufacturing facilities along the unfailing mountain streams in the valleys, and will no doubt ultimately unite with Montana and Southwestern Dacotah to supply the immense central part of our domain with all the products of manufacturing genius and skill.

Denver, the capital and principal city, is situated near the eastern base of the mountains, where these put on their severest and sublimest aspect. Clear lakes are set like stars, here and there, and the beautiful and grand in scenery are nowhere more striking or more agreeably combined.

The Territory contains 106,475 square miles in area, and the population in 1870 numbered 29,706.

Several attempts have been made to obtain admission of Colorado as a State into the American Union. An act to enable the people to form a constitution and State government was passed by Congress, March, 1864. The constitution framed under this act, was rejected by the people of the territory. Another constitution was framed and adopted in 1865, but a bill passed by Congress for its admission, was vetoed by the President. Another attempt made in 1867 likewise failed by the President's veto; since which time it quietly remained under its Territorial government until March 3d, 1875, when it was admitted by Act of Congress.



OREGON

PRIMARILY included Washington Territory, and, with the latter, comprised the extensive tract lying between the British Possessions on the north and California on the south; the Rocky Mountains on the east, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. The coasts of this region were discovered by the Spaniards in the 16th century. In 1792, Captain Grey, of Boston, discovered and entered Columbia River, and thus the United States acquired the right of sovereignty over the territory. The exploration of the country from the Missouri to the Columbia, by Lewis and Clark, government appointees, in 1804–5–6, strengthened this claim. The British, however, laid claim to the northern part of the territory, which gave rise to a threatening dispute between Great Britain and the United States. But the difficulty was adjusted by a treaty in 1846, establishing the boundary of 49 deg. north latitude. It was admitted into the Union in the year 1859. The State still contains the Flathead, Pend Oreille, Spokane, Shoshane, and other tribes of Indians, who are, for the most part, in the savage state, though the Christian missionaries have done much in the way of civilizing a portion of them. The furs of this region, those of the badger, beaver, bear, fisher-fox, lynx, martin, mink, muskrat, etc., have long been a great source of revenue.

The American fur companies established trading posts in Oregon at an early period, that of Astoria being founded in 1810, under the auspices of the late John Jacob Astor, of New York. It was settled, at Astoria, by emigrants from the Eastern States, in the year 1811.

The mineral resources of Oregon may properly be limited to coal and copper, but the quantity of these is to be left unlimited, since it is estimated that they are inexhaustible. Gold is also found, but not extensively. The climate in the eastern part of the State is cold and damp—indeed, one might safely go farther and say wet, since rain falls four days out of seven in the summer, and the winter is one long rain, known as the "wet season;" yet notwithstanding this, the valleys are the most fertile in the world, and large crops of grain are raised, in which wheat takes the first place. Manufactures have scarce an existence yet, and the commerce of the State is almost entirely confined to San Francisco, to which place most of her exports are sent. These consist of agricultural products and lumber.

In internal improvements also she is still deficient, little or nothing having been done for the railroads of the country, except to plan one or two lines. The construction of them, however, is in the "dim distance." One has been finished from Portland to Salem, and it is designed to continue it down through the State and to connect it with some road running into San Francisco.

The common school system is the same as in the Eastern States, and a school fund already established and profitably invested, which will in a short time support them without resort to taxation The population in 1870 was 90,923.

It has an area of 95,274 square miles, equal to 60,975,360 acres. The population in 1870 did nor reach the number required to entitle it to a Member of Congress according to the fixed ratio. But every State is entitled to one member, whatever its population may be. By the act of 1866, the States of Oregon, Nevada and California were constituted the ninth judicial circuit. Oregon forms one judicial district, and has one collection district, and one port of entry.

The capital is Salem, where her Legislature meets once in two years, on the second Monday of September. The State election is held on the first Monday in June.

OHIO, and all the territory north of the Ohio river, was early erected into a separate government, by Congress, called the Northwest Territory. The region south of the river was treated in the same manner a little later. In 1800 the Mississippi Territory was organized; thus covering all the ground originally belonging to the New Republic. These were, as population increased, divided into sections, of convenient size for the purpose of local self government, and States created as fast as the requisite number of citizens had collected within such limits; and the remainder continued under the preliminary territorial rule.

In 1802, the vast region west of the Mississippi was bought of the French government. This extended the National Domain from the mouth to the head waters of this river, and westward, north of the Spanish possessions, to the Pacific ocean. Many new States and Territories have been formed from it. The process of multiplication has not yet ceased in this region. In 1819 Florida was purchased; a part of Mexico was obtained in 1848, and again in 1853; and the increase of territory continued by the acquisition of Alaska in 1867. This policy has become, in a manner, traditional, and it is not unlikely that it may be continued to some extent in the future.

The government of the territories is established by act of Congress; the President nominates and the Senate confirms the Governor, Secretary, and Judges of courts; and Congress passes all the general laws for the government of the inhabitants. A Territorial Legislature is elected by the inhabitants which takes charge of all the local interests of the Territory. All these laws and organizations are temporary, and pass away when a State government is founded. Commonly an act of Congress authorizes the election of delegates to a Convention for framing a State Constitution; though the Territorial Government sometimes takes the initiative. This constitution is then submitted to the popular vote of the citizens in the Territory; and if they favor it, presented to Congress for its approval. If it is in harmony with our usages, and republican principles, Congress accepts it.

NEW MEXICO.

THIS large territory as defined by Spanish or American authorities, extended from 32 deg. 30 min. to 42 deg. north latitude, and from 23 deg. to about 30 deg. longitude west of the city of Washington. It was early settled by Spaniards, and formed a territory of the Republic of Mexico until 1848, when it was ceded to the United States. In September, 1850, this territory was defined by act of Congress, and provision made for its organization.

Right of Suffrage.—Every free white male inhabitant, above the age of twenty-one years, who shall have been a resident of said territory at the time of the passage of this act, shall be entitled to vote at the first election, and shall be eligible to any office within the said territory; but the qualifications of voters and of holding office, at all subsequent elections, shall be such as shall be prescribed by the Legislative Assembly. Within the bounds of this territory and Arizona, are residing large tribes of Indians, many of a warlike character, roaming over this region and western Texas, as well as the northern part of Mexico.

The high table-lands, of which most of the territory consists, are broken by mountain ranges. The Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Madres pass through the central portion from east to west. The soil is dry, and much of it, owing to its great elevation above the sea, is sterile, and agriculture almost entirely neglected. It is, however, a fine grazing country, and stock raising will no doubt be one of its principal sources of wealth, though its mines are very rich, and when properly developed, will command much attention and pay abundantly. Gold and silver is especially abundant, and it only needs capital to bring the mines into more favorable and general notice.

The country is settled by a wild and lawless people—Spaniards, Mexicans, Indians and half breeds of every nationality—and, of course, order is but partially observed; laws can not be enforced; civilization makes but little progress, and society does not improve. The climate is mild and healthful, and but a small portion of the country wooded. There are several fine salt lakes in the territory where the rapid evaporation of the water causes the crystali-

zation of the salt so rapidly that it falls to the bottom; as the water is shallow, it is taken out almost pure, and quite a business is done in supplying the inhabitants with the article.

A public school has been established by the Governor of the Territory. A Territorial Government exists. The capital is Santa Fe.

UTAH

WAS formerly a part of the Mexican territory of Upper California, and was acquired by the United States in 1848, by the the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. It was too distant, desolate, and dangerous a region for a settlement by Mexicans, and has little known history anterior to the explorations of Fremont, between 1843 and 1846.

The first American settlement was made by the Mormons, in July, 1847, and was supposed by them to be out of the territory of the United States, and beyond the reach of possible interference. Here, in the depths of the desert, they determined to build up a peculiar religious society embracing customs abhorrent to the views and institutions of modern civilized States. Their success was a surprise to the world, and probably to themselves; the capacity of the depths of the Great American Desert, as it was called, for cultivation, exceeding all previous expectation. But the war with Mexico, then in progress, threw this, before inaccessible, desert into the limits of the American Union; and the discovery of gold in the neighboring territory of California, throwing them almost midway between the old western settlements and the new Eldorado, subjected them to contact with, and interference by, the tide of modern civilization, as it flowed toward the setting sun; and in ten years from their first appearance in the Great Central Basin of the continent, they came again into hostile conflict with the established authorities they thought

to have finally escaped. Though their conflict with the United States government, imbued with habits and prejudices with which they antagonized, was deferred by the troubles which precipitated the Civil War, and their institutions remained substantially intact until that was past; the Pacific Railroad was then built through their territory, and, if they are no longer persecuted, and their peculiarities opposed by deadly force, the moral influence and dissolving powers introduced by numbers is more surely wasting away the foundations of their political and religious edifice.

Utah was organized as a Territory by act of Congress, Sept. 9, 1850. Brigham Young, the head of the Mormon church, became the first governor. In 1854 it was vainly attempted to remove him; and in 1857 an army was sent to enforce Federal authority. A final conflict was avoided by compromise. In 1862, the Mormons attempted to get admission into the Union as a State, with their "peculiar institutions," but failed. A Territorial Government exists, but has little force or vitality, while the Mormons are large in numbers.

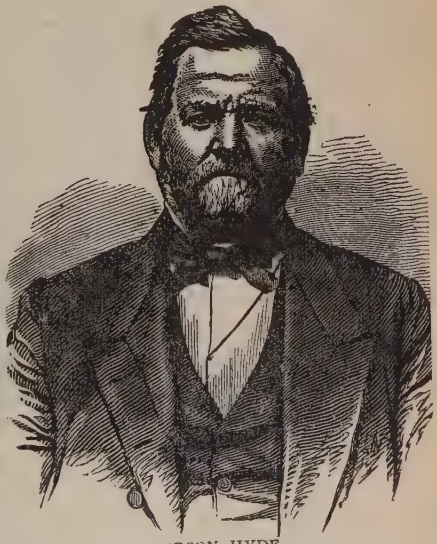
Utah is unique in one respect; though lying nearly a mile above the surface of the sea, and having a complete system of lakes and rivers, there is no visible connection of these with the ocean. It is a continent embosomed within the depths of a continent. The Great Salt Lake is 100 miles long by 50 broad, and its waters are very salt—three parts of the water producing one of pure salt No fish can live in it. It receives the contents of many considerable streams. Whether they are kept in subjection by evaporation alone, or have a concealed outlet to the ocean is unknown. The soil, though in its natural state an apparent desert, is extremely fertile when irrigated, and produces wheat and other cereals in great profusion. Its mountains are believed to be rich in silver and gold; but the Mormons have discouraged mining, and very little has been done in that direction.

Cotton is highly successful in the southern settlements, and experiments with flax and silk culture have been very favorable. The climate is mild and healthy.

Utah is a highly promising section of our national domain. Its population in 1870 was 86,786; its area about 87,500 square miles.

GEORGE A. SMITH, FIRST COUNSELLOR, CHURCH HISTORIAN. NEXT TO YOUNG IN AUTHORITY.

ORSON PRATT,
ONE OF THE TWELVE APOSTLES.



ORSON HYDE,
PRESIDENT OF THE TWELVE APOSTLES.

THE ARCH OF TRIUMPH, Paris, Erected by Napoleon I.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

ORGANIZED by act of Congress, passed March 2d, 1853, settled by emigrants from the Northern and Western States. It was taken from the northern part of Oregon, "being all that portion of territory lying and being south of the 47th degree of north latitude, and north of the middle of the main channel of the Columbia River, from its mouth to where the 46th degree of north latitude crosses said river, near Fort Wallah Wallah, thence east to Snake River; thence north to the 49th parallel of latitude, being bounded on the east by the Territory of Idaho, and on the north by the British Possessions. Lying on Puget's Sound, in north latitude 47 deg., west longitude from Greenwich 120 deg. 25 min., having a mean annual temperature of 50 deg. Fahrenheit. The climate of Washington Territory is much milder than in the same parallels of latitude east of the Rocky Mountains, while the soil is mostly rich and very fertile, producing a large growth of forest trees. Gold and other valuable minerals also abound in many parts of the territory.

With the exception of the land around Puget's Sound, the soil is rich and productive, and though corn does not grow well here, no better wheat is produced in the world, and barley, oats and potatoes yield immensely. It is a fine grazing country, and promises, in its horses, cattle and wool raising interests, to be of great value. It has immense forests, and produces, it is said, the finest masts and spars in the world.

Its mineral resources have not yet been sufficiently tested to give a definite idea of their value. Gold and silver are known to exist in large quantities, and coal in inexhaustible quantities; enough, it is believed, to supply the Pacific coast for generations to come. The capital is Olympia, and lies on the east side of Tenalquets River, in Thurston county. The population is 23,925.

Puget Sound can float with ease the navies of the world on its peaceful bosom. The Northern Pacific railroad will originate here probably another great commercial emporium. Washington will, in due time, become a great and wealthy State.

Its area is about 70,000 square miles.

DAKOTA TERRITORY,

ORGANIZED by act of Congress, passed March 2d, 1861, comprised a large extent of country, being bounded on the east by Minnesota, south by Nebraska, west by the 27th degree of longitude west of Washington, separating it from the Territory of Idaho, and on the north by the British Possessions, running along the 49th parallel of latitude. It is drained by the Missouri River on the south, and by the Red River of the North, emptying into Hudson Bay.

Unquestionably Dakota is one of the very finest of our territories, and is unexcelled either in its agricultural, mining, or stock-raising facilities and qualifications. Its soil is as rich as that of Illinois; its climate is as fine as that of any of the Middle States, its mineral resources are as great as those of any Western Territory, while its inhabitants are mostly emigrants from New England and the East, thus giving the young territory advantages superior to those enjoyed by many other sections of the West. Water is everywhere pure and plenty, and timber of the best quality skirts all the streams. The wild grasses are pronounced far superior to the cultivated grass of the east; richer, more nutritious, and with a far heavier yield per acre; while left growing, it cures into good winter feed, and cattle not only live but fatten upon it.

There are about twenty-five free schools in the territory, and ample means have been appropriated to increase them as fast as needed and to encourage their growth and prosperity. Several railroads are projected and some in process of construction. The population, according to the last census report, was 14,181. The capital, Yankton, is a flourishing city.

ARIZONA TERRITORY.

BY act of Congress, approved February 24, 1863, Arizona was organized, embracing "all that part of the present territory of New Mexico situate west of a line running due south from the point where the southwest corner of the Territory of Colorado joins the northern boundary of the Territory of New Mexico, to the southern boundary of said Territory," containing an estimated area of 131,000 square miles. It is thinly settled by natives of Mexico and emigrants from different States of the Union, besides containing a large number of Indians of a warlike character. The right of suffrage and territorial organization similar to those of New Mexico, with the provision, "that there shall neither be slaves nor involuntary servitude in said Territory." This Territory is rich in gold, silver, copper and other minerals, while the soil is mostly sterile except in the few valleys susceptible of irrigation. Arizona, proper, was acquired by treaty with Mexico known as the "Gadsden Treaty," and ratified in June, 1864.

Few marks of civilization are found here, and neither Christianity nor education has smoothed away the rough, half-savage characteristics of the inhabitants, who are Spanish, half-breeds, Indians and miners, gathered from the refuse of all States, many, or most of them, desperadoes and outcasts, with here and there, in the agricultural districts, an American settler. Their towns are closely like the Mexican, with miserable, unburnt brick huts, where filth and squalor reign supreme. Scattered through the Territory are ruins of fortifications and castles and ancient churches whose ruins give everywhere proof of their having been devoted to idol worship, while here and there, half covered with mould, and almost hidden by rank vegetation and tangled vines, which creep over them as if in pity for their hideous ugliness, lie the shattered gods of the people who once dwelt here, a lordly but barbarous race, of whom not a vestige remains. Arizona was formerly a part of Mexico, until purchased by the United States. Population 9,658.

IDAHO TERRITORY.

THIS new Territory, lying on the west side of the Rocky Mountains, was organized by act of Congress, approved March 3, 1863. Its boundary is as follows: "Beginning at a point in the middle channel of Snake River where the northern boundary of Oregon intersects the same; then follow down the said channel of Snake River to a point opposite the mouth of the Kooskooskia, or Clearwater River; thence due north to the 49th parallel of latitude; thence east to the new Territory of Montana; thence west along the 42d parallel of latitude to the eastern boundary of the State of Oregon; thence north along said boundary to the place of beginning."

The surface is rough and broken, and the entire eastern, northeastern, and northern parts are mountainous. The Rocky Mountains and the Bitter Root Mountains cover fully half of the Territory with either broken or continuous ranges, affording magnificent scenery, that in the vicinity of Salmon River being exceedingly fine. The gold and silver mines are partially worked, and though the yield is good, the want of transportation, either by water or railway, is a serious drawback and greatly retards the development of the mineral resources of the Territory. Several thousand claims are taken up and worked to some extent, but the enormous expense attendant upon it prevents successful efforts to work them extensively.

There are three beautiful lakes of considerable size in Idaho; the Cœur d' Aline, the Pen d'Oreille, and the Boatman, each are about 30 miles long and about 6 to 10 wide, and navigable for steamers. The soil of the central, southern and western parts is fertile, and produces small grain and vegetables, but corn does not do well there. Grass grows abundantly, and grazing will be the most popular branch of agriculture.

The Northern Pacific Railroad will cross the State from east to west, but at present the Territory has no railroad. The system of education is the same as in the other Territories, but is very limited in its operations. Boise City is the capital. Population 14,978.

MONTANA TERRITORY.

THIS new Territory, lying between the 45th and 49th degrees of north latitude and the 27th and 39th degrees of longitude west from Washington, was organized by act of Congress, approved May 26, 1864. It may be said to form the northern half of the Territory of Idaho, as organized March 3, 1863. This extensive territory embraces the head sources of the Missouri River, lying east of the Rocky Mountains, and the head sources of the north branch of the Columbia River, lying west of the above mountains and north of the Bitter Root Mountains.

It is one of the finest countries for grazing purposes west of the Mississippi. Small grain and small fruits grow almost spontaneously and produce abundantly. It will no doubt be the "Garden of the West." The important vegetable crops also yield well. Timber for mining, agricultural and domestic purposes is abundant. Gold, silver, iron, lead and copper are abundant in the mountains, and some of the lodes, both of gold and silver, are as large and rich as have yet been discovered in any State or Territory. Montana must some day rank among our richest States, for, no matter how great her mining population may be, her agricultural resources will be amply sufficient to meet every want.

Virginia City is the capital, and is connected by stage routes with all the principal towns in the Territory. Population of the Territory in 1870 was 20,594, area 153,800 square miles.

INDIAN TERRITORY,

SITUATED west of the States of Arkansas and Missouri, and south of the 37th degree of north latitude, is bounded on the south and west by the State of Texas. This is a fruitful region, inhabited by many tribes of civilized Indians, mostly Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws and Seminoles, amounting to 60,000 or 70,000 souls.

The extent of Territory is about 70,000 square miles, and with the exception of a sand tract in the northeastern portion, is fertile and fruitful. This Territory is set apart for the permanent home of the Indian tribes, and no authority is exercised over them by the Government, except for crimes committed by them against the whites in the border States. Some of the tribes are highly intelligent, and as each tribe has its own lands secured to them by the United States, and is protected in its domestic institutions and customs, they are free to cultivate habits of industry and to have their schools, churches and factories, and improve in civilization, art and science. The Cherokees avail themselves most readily of these advantages, and have highly cultivated farms with good buildings and fruit in abundance; churches and thriving schools, while other tribes are fast decreasing in numbers and wealth, and will soon become extinct. Their capital is Tah-le-Quah, and their population 70,000.

WYOMING TERRITORY,

THIS, one of the youngest of the Western Territories, lies between the parallels of 41 and 45 deg. north latitude, and between the meridian of 27 and 34 deg. west longitude from Washington. It was organized by act of Congress, approved July 25th, 1868. It has on the north, Montana; on the east, Dakota and Nebraska, and on the south, Colorado and a small portion of Utah, and on the west, Idaho and the northern part of Utah.

The Pacific Railroad passes through it, and Cheyenne and Laramie are already very considerable towns. The surface is broken by several mountain ranges, outlying spurs of the Rocky Mountains, such as the Bighorn, Rattlesnake and Wind River Mountains, as well as by the main chain of the Rocky Mountains themselves, which cross the Territory from northwest to southeast. Most of it is an elevated and rolling plateau, but the greater part is fertile and arable land, though needing irrigation in most sections. The valley of Bitter Creek and the vicinity of Bridger's Pass are exceptions to the general fertility, being desolate and desert in the extreme.

The valley of the Sweetwater and the foothills of the Wind River Mountains are known to be largely auriferous, and some hundreds of lodes have been located. There are also extensive beds of coal and iron in the vicinity of the Pacific Railroad, and the supplies of coal for that road are drawn from this source. There are also large quantities of lime, gypsum, lead and copper ores, and oil and salt springs.

The climate is mild and remarkably salubrious. The winters are mild and open, and stock fattens without requiring to be housed. The passage of the Pacific Railroad and some of its branches through the Territory insure its speedy settlement and prosperity. Population 9,118. Area 100,500 square miles.

ALASKA TERRITORY.

THIS vast region, formerly known as Russian America, was purchased by the United States from the Russian Government, March 30th, 1867, the actual transfer taking place in October of the same year. Its boundaries are as follows: Commencing at 54 deg. 40 min. north latitude, ascending Portland channel to the mountains, following their summits to 141 deg. west longitude from Greenwich; thence north on this line to the Arctic Ocean, forming the eastern boundary. Starting from the Arctic Ocean west, this line descends Behring's Strait, between the two islands of Krusenstern and Ratmanoff, to the parallel of 35 deg. 30 min., and proceeds due north without limitation, into the same Arctic Ocean. Beginning again at the same initial point, on the parallel of 65 deg. 30 min., thence in a course southwest through Behring's Strait, between the island of St. Lawrence and Cape Chenkotski to the 172 deg. of west longitude (from Greenwich); and thence southwesterly, through Behring's Sea, between the islands of Attou and Copper, to the meridian of 193 deg. west longitude; leaving the prolonged group of the Aleutian Islands in the possessions now transferred to the United States and making the western boundary of our country the dividing line between Asia and America. The surface of this vast region, comprising 577,390 square miles, is varied. The northern part of the mainland is compact and nearly level, comprising a tract nearly square and about 600 miles in length and breadth. From this a narrow belt extends along the coast to latitude 54 deg. 40 min., broken and mountainous with a few fertile valleys. There are in this region several large rivers, the principal of which is the Yuken or Kwichpak, 2000 miles or more in length, of which nearly 1500 are navigable. The Peninsula of Alaska is mountainous and its summits are among the most elevated in North America, Mt. St. Elias and Mt. Fairweather are between 15,000 and 18,000 feet in height. The islands of the Aleutian group are volcanic, and form a remarkable range.

A BARRICADE IN PARIS.

BURNING THE GUILLOTINE IN THE PLACE VOLTAIRE.

WOMEN WAITING THE RETURN OF THE CARRIER PIGEON
During the Siege of Paris.

HISTORY OF THE U. S. FINANCIALLY;

Giving names of Presidents and Vice-Presidents, and showing Expenditures and Debt of the Country during the various Political Administration from the Founding of the Government to the present time.

Yr.	President.	Vice-President.	Public Expenditures.	Public Debt.
1789	George Washington	John Adams *F		
1790	George Washington	John Adams F		
1791	George Washington	John Adams F	$3,797,436 78	$75,463,476 52
1792	George Washington	John Adams F	8,962,920 00	77,227,924 66
1793	George Washington	John Adams F	6,479,977 97	80,352,634 04
1794	George Washington	John Adams F	9,041,593 17	78,427,404 77
1795	George Washington	John Adams F	10,151,240 15	80,747,587 39
1796	George Washington	John Adams F	8,367,776 84	83,862,172 07
1797	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson F	8,625,877 37	82,064,479 33
1798	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson F	8,583,618 41	79,228,529 12
1799	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson F	11,002,396 97	78,408,669 77
1800	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson F	11,952,534 12	82,796,294 35
1801	Thomas Jefferson	Aaron Burr R	12,273,376 94	83,038,050 80
1802	Thomas Jefferson	Aaron Burr R	13,270,487 31	80,712,632 25
1803	Thomas Jefferson	Aaron Burr R	11,258,983 67	77,054,686 30
1804	Thomas Jefferson	Aaron Burr R	12,615,113 72	86,427,120 88
1805	Thomas Jefferson	George Clinton R	13,598,309 47	82,312,150 50
1806	Thomas Jefferson	George Clinton R	15,021,196 26	75,723,270 66
1807	Thomas Jefferson	George Clinton R	11,292,292 99	69,218,398 64
1808	Thomas Jefferson	George Clinton R	16,762,702 04	65,196,317 97
1809	James Madison	George Clinton R	13,867,226 30	57,023,192 09
1810	James Madison	George Clinton R	13,309,994 49	53,173,217 52
1811	James Madison	George Clinton R	13,592,604 86	48,005,587 76
1812	James Madison	George Clinton R	22,279,121 15	45,209,737 90
1813	James Madison	Elbridge Gerry R	39,190,520 36	55,962,827 57
1814	James Madison	Elbridge Gerry† R	38,028,230 32	81,487,846 24
1815	James Madison	John Gaillard R	39,582,493 35	99,833,660 15
1816	James Madison	John Gaillard R	48,244,495 51	127,334,933 74
1817	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	40,877,646 04	123,491,965 16
1818	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	35,104,875 40	103,466,633 83
1819	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	24,004,199 73	95,529,648 28
1820	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	21,763,024 85	91,015,566 15
1821	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	19,090,572 69	89,987,427 66
1822	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	17,676,592 63	93,546,676 98
1823	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	15,314,171 00	90,875,877 28
1824	James Monroe	D. D. Tompkins R	31,898,538 47	90,269,777 77
1825	John Quincy Adams	John C. Calhoun R	23,585,804 72	83,788,432 71
1826	John Quincy Adams	John C. Calhoun R	24,103,398 46	81,054,059 99
1827	John Quincy Adams	John C. Calhoun R	22,656,764 04	73,987,357 20
1828	John Quincy Adams	John C. Calhoun R	25,459,479 52	67,475,043 87
1829	Andrew Jackson	John C. Calhoun D	25,044,358 40	58,421,413 67
1830	Andrew Jackson	John C. Calhoun D	24,585,281 55	48,565,406 50
1831	Andrew Jackson	John C. Calhoun D	30,038,446 12	39,123,191 68
1832	Andrew Jackson	John C. Calhoun D	34,356,698 06	24,322,235 18
1833	Andrew Jackson	Martin VanBuren D	24,257,298 49	7,001,698 83
1834	Andrew Jackson	Martin VanBuren D	24,601,982 44	4,760,082 08
1835	Andrew Jackson	Martin VanBuren D	17,573,141 56	37,513 05
1836	Andrew Jackson	Martin VanBuren D	30,868,164 04	336,957 83

* The political complexion of the different Presidential terms is indicated by a single letter opposite each year, defined as follows: *F*, Federalist; *R*, Republican; *D*, Democrat; *W*, Whig.

† Elbridge Gerry died in 1814, and was succeeded by John Gaillard, Vice-President *pro tem.*

HISTORY OF THE U. S. FINANCIALLY—Continued.

Yr.	President.	Vice-President.	Public Expenditures.	Public Debt.
1837	Martin VanBuren	R. M. Johnson—D	$37,265,037 15	$3,308,124 07
1838	Martin VanBuren	R. M. Johnson—D	39,455,438 35	10,434,221 14
1839	Martin VanBuren	R. M. Johnson—D	37,614,936 15	3,573,343 82
1840	Martin VanBuren	R. M. Johnson—D	28,226,533 81	5,250,875 54
1841	W. H. Harrison	John Tyler‡—W	31,797,530 03	13,594,480 73
1842	John Tyler	Wm. P. Mangum—W	32,936,876 53	20,601,226 28
1843	John Tyler	Wm. P. Mangum—W	12,118,105 15	32,742,922 00
1844	John Tyler	Wm. P. Mangum—W	33,642,010 85	23,461,652 50
1845	James K. Polk	George M. Dallas—D	30,490,408 71	15,925,303 01
1846	James K. Polk	George M. Dallas—D	27,632,282 90	15,550,202 97
1847	James K. Polk	George M. Dallas—D	60,520,851 74	38,826,534 77
1848	James K. Polk	George M. Dallas—D	60,655,143 19	47,044,862 23
1849	Zachary Taylor	Millard Fillmore§—W	56,386,422 74	63,061,858 69
1850	Millard Fillmore	Wm. R. King—W	44,604,718 26	63,452,773 55
1851	Millard Fillmore	David R. Atchison—W	48,476,104 31	68,304,796 02
1852	Millard Fillmore	David R. Atchison—W	46,712,608 83	66,199,341 71
1853	Franklin Pierce	Wm. R. King‖—D	54,577,061 74	59,803,117 70
1854	Franklin Pierce	David R. Atchison—D	75,473,170 75	42,242,222 42
1855	Franklin Pierce	Jesse D. Bright—D	66,164,775 96	35,586,956 56
1856	Franklin Pierce	Jesse D. Bright—D	72,726,341 57	31,972,537 90
1857	James Buchanan	J. C. Breckenridge—D	71,274,587 37	28,699,831 85
1858	James Buchanan	J. C. Breckenridge—D	82,062,186 74	44,911,881 03
1859	James Buchanan	J. C. Breckenridge—D	83,678,642 92	58,496,837 88
1860	James Buchanan	J. C. Breckenridge—D	77,055,125 65	64,842,287 88
1861	Abraham Lincoln	Hannibal Hamlin—R	85,387,313 08	90,580,873 72
1862	Abraham Lincoln	Hannibal Hamlin—R	565,667,563 74	524,176,412 13
1863	Abraham Lincoln	Hannibal Hamlin—R	895,815,911 25	1,119,772,138 63
1864	Abraham Lincoln	Hannibal Hamlin—R	1,295,541,114 86	1,815,784,370 57
1865	Abraham Lincoln	Andrew Johnson¶—R	1,906,433,331 37	2,680,647,869 74
1866	Andrew Johnson	Lafayette S. Foster—R	1,139,344,081 95	2,773,236,173 69
1867	Andrew Johnson	Benj. F. Wade—R	1,093,079,655 27	2,678,126,103 87
1868	Andrew Johnson	Benj. F. Wade—R	1,069,889,970 74	2,611,687,851 19
1869	Ulysses S. Grant	Schuyler Colfax—R	584,777,996 11	2,588,452,213 94
1870	Ulysses S. Grant	Schuyler Colfax—R	702,907,842 88	2,480,672,427 81
1871	Ulysses S. Grant	Schuyler Colfax—R	691,680,858 90	2,353,211,332 11
1872	Ulysses S. Grant	Schuyler Colfax—R	682,525,270 21	2,253,251,328 78
1873	Ulysses S. Grant	Henry Wilson—R	524,044,597 91	2,234,482,993 20
1874	Ulysses S. Grant	Henry Wilson—R		
1875	Ulysses S. Grant	Henry Wilson—R		

Note.—Though the principles of the various administrations, from 1801 to 1829, are designated as Republican, it may be remarked that the principles of both the Democratic and Republican parties have materially changed since the establishment of these parties, which changes have been wrought by the new political issues that have from time to time sprung up in the history of the Government.

‡ Wm. H. Harrison Died in 1841, after being one month in office. John Tyler succeeded to the Presidency, and Wm. P. Mangum became Vice-President *pro tem.*

§ Zachary Taylor died July, 1850, being succeeded by Millard Fillmore; Wm. R. King succeeding to the Vice-Presidency the first half of the Presidential term, and David R. Atchison the last half.

‖ Wm. R. King died 1853; David R. Atchison becoming Vice-President *pro tem.* for the first half of the Presidential term, and Jesse D. Bright for the last half.

¶ Abraham Lincoln was assassinated by J. Wilkes Booth, April 14, 1865. Andrew Johnson succeeded to the Presidency, and Lafayette S. Foster to the Vice-Presidency the remainder of the first half of the Presidential term, and Benj. F. Wade the last half.

STATE LAWS

RELATING TO RATES OF INTEREST, AND PENALTIES FOR USURY.

States and Territories.	Legal Rate of Interest	Rate allowed by Contract.	Penalties for Usury.
	per cent	per cent.	
Alabama	8	8	Forfeiture of entire interest
Arizona	10	Any rate.	
Arkansas	6	Any rate.	
California	10	Any rate.	
Colorado	10	Any rate.	
Connecticut	7	7	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Dakota	7	18	Forfeiture of principal and interest.
Delaware	6	6	Forfeiture of principal.
District of Columbia	6	10	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Florida	8	Any rate.	
Georgia	7	Any rate.	
Idaho	10	Any rate.	
Illinois	6	10	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Indiana	6	10	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Iowa	6	10	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Kansas	7	12	For. of ex. of int. above 12 per cent.
Kentucky	6	10	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Louisiana	5	8	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Maine	6	Any rate.	
Maryland	6	6	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Massachusetts	6	Any rate.	
Michigan	7	10	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Minnesota	7	12	No Usury Law in this State.
Mississippi	6	Any rate.	
Missouri	6	10	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Montana	10	Any rate.	
Nebraska	10	12	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Nevada	10	Any rate.	
New Hampshire	6	6	Forfeiture of thrice the ex. and costs.
New Jersey	7	7	Forfeiture of entire interest.
New Mexico	6	Any rate.	
New York	7	7	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
North Carolina	6	8	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Ohio	6	8	Forfeiture of excess above 6 per cent.
Ontario, Canada	6	Any rate.	
Oregon	10	12	
Pennsylvania	6	Any rate.	
Quebec, Canada	6	Any rate.	
Rhode Island	6	Any rate.	
South Carolina	7	Any rate.	
Tennessee	6	10	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Texas	8	Any rate.	
Utah	10	Any rate.	
Vermont	6	6	Forfeiture of excess of interest.
Virginia	6	6 *	
Washington Territory	10	Any rate.	
West Virginia	6	6 *	
Wisconsin	7	10	Forfeiture of entire interest.
Wyoming	12	Any rate.	

* Except in cases defined by Statutes of the State.

STATE LAWS

RELATING TO LIMITATIONS OF ACTIONS: SHOWING LIMIT OF TIME IN WHICH ACTION MAY BE BROUGHT ON THE FOLLOWING:

States and Territories.	Assault slander, replevin &c.	Open Accts.	Notes.	Judgments.	Sealed and witnessed Instruments.
	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.
Alabama	1	3	6	20	10
Arkansas	1	3	5	10	10
California	3	2	4	5	5
Colorado	1	2	2	3	3
Connecticut	1	6	6	6	17
Dakota	2	6	6	20	20
Delaware	1	3	6	20	20
District of Columbia	1	3	3	12	12
Florida	2	5	5	20	20
Georgia	1	4	6	7	20
Idaho	3	2	4	5	5
Illinois	1	5	10	20	10
Indiana	2	6	20	20	20
Iowa	2	5	10	20	10
Kansas	1	3	5	5	15
Kentucky	1	2	5	15	15
Louisiana	1	3	5	10	20
Maine	2	6	20	20	20
Maryland	3	3	3	12	12
Massachusetts	2	6	20	20	20
Michigan	2	6	6	10	10
Minnesota	2	6	6	10	20
Mississippi	1	3	6	7	7
Missouri	2	2	10	20	20
Montana	2	2	4	5	4
Nebraska	1	4	5	5	10
Nevada	2, 6	6	20	20	20
New Hampshire	1	--	--	10	10
New Jersey	2	6	6	20	20
New Mexico	1	3	10	10	10
New York	1	6	15	15	15
North Carolina	1	3	10	10	10
Ohio	1	6	15	15	15
Ontario, (U. Canada)	1	5	5	30	30
Oregon	2	1	6	10	20
Pennsylvania	1	6	6	20	20
Quebec, (L. Canada)	1, 2	5	5	30	30
Rhode Island	1	6	6	20	20
South Carolina	2	6	6	20	20
Tennessee	1	6	6	20	--
Texas	1	2	4	10	10
Utah	1	2	4	5	7
Vermont	2	6	14	8	8
Virginia	5	5	5	10	20
Washington Territory	2	3	6	9	20
West Virginia	5	5	6	10	10
Wisconsin	2	6	6	20	20
Wyoming	1	6	15	10	21

OUR POPULATION AND GROWTH.

States and Territories.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.		Miles R. R.	
		1860.	1870.	1862.	1872.
States.					
Alabama	50,722	964,201	996,992	805	1,671
Arkansas	52,198	435,450	484,471	38	25
California	188,981	379,994	560,247	23	1,013
Connecticut	4,674	460,147	537,454	630	820
Delaware	2,120	112,216	125,015	127	227
Florida	59,268	140,424	187,748	402	466
Georgia	58,000	1,057,286	1,184,109	1,420	2,108
Illinois	55,410	1,711,951	2,539,891	2,998	5,904
Indiana	33,809	1,350,428	1,680,637	2,175	3,529
Iowa	55,045	674,913	1,191,792	731	3,160
Kansas	81,318	107,209	364,399	------	1,760
Kentucky	37,600	1,155,684	1,321,011	567	1,123
Louisiana	41,346	708,002	726,915	355	539
Maine	31,776	628,279	626,915	505	871
Maryland	11,184	687,049	780,894	408	820
Massachusetts	7,800	1,231,066	1,457 351	1,285	1,606
Michigan	56,451	749,113	1,184,059	853	2,235
Minnesota	83,531	172,023	439,706	------	1,612
Mississippi	47,156	791,305	827,922	862	990
Missouri	65,350	1,182,012	1,721,295	838	2,580
Nebraska	75,995	28,841	123,993	------	828
Nevada	112,090	6,857	42,491	------	593
New Hampshire	9,280	326,073	318,300	661	790
New Jersey	8,320	672,035	906,096	633	1,265
New York	47,000	3,880,735	4,382,759	2,728	4,470
North Carolina	50,704	992,622	1,071,361	937	1,190
Ohio	39,964	2,339,511	2,665,260	3,100	3,740
Oregon	95,244	52,465	90,923	4	159
Pennsylvania	46,000	2,906,215	3,521,791	3,006	5,113
Rhode Island	1,306	174,620	217,353	108	136
South Carolina	29,385	703,708	705,606	973	1,201
Tennessee	45,600	1,109,801	1,258,520	1,253	1,520
Texas	237,504	604,215	818,579	451	865
Vermont	10,212	315,098	330,551	562	675
Virginia	40,904	1,219,630	1,225,163	1,379	1,490
West Virginia	23,000	376,688	442,014	361	485
Wisconsin	53,924	775,881	1,054,670	961	1,725
Total States.	1,950,171	31,183,744	38,113,253	32,120	59,587
Territories.					
Arizona	113,916	------	9,658	------	------
Colorado	104,500	34,277	39,864	------	392
Dakota	147,490	4,837	14,181	------	------
District of Columbia	60	75,080	131,700	*	*
Idaho	90,932	------	14,999	------	------
Montana	143,766	------	20,595	------	------
New Mexico	121,201	93,516	91,874	------	------
Utah	80,056	40,273	86,786	------	375
Washington	69,944	11,594	23,955	------	------
Wyoming	93,107	------	9,118	------	498
Total Territories.	965,032	259,577	442,730	------	1,265
Aggregate United States	2,915,203	31,443,321	38,555,983	32,120	60,852

* Included in the Railroad Mileage of Maryland.

POPULATION OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, 1790–1870.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	AGGREGATE.								
	1870.	1860.	1850.	1840.	1830.	1820.	1810.	1800.	1790.
Alabama	996992	694201	771623	590756	309527	127901			
Arkansas	484471	435450	209897	97574	30388	14273			
California	560247	379994	92597						
Connecticut	537454	460147	370792	309978	297675	275248	261942	251002	237946
Delaware	125015	112216	91532	78085	76748	72749	72674	64273	59,096
Florida	187748	140424	87445	54477	34730				
Georgia	1184109	1057286	906185	691392	516823	340989	252433	162686	82,548
Illinois	2539891	1711951	851470	476183	157445	55211	12282		
Indiana	1680637	1350428	988416	685866	343031	147178	24520	5641	
Iowa	1191792	674913	192214	43112					
Kansas	364399	107206							
Kentucky	1321011	1155684	982405	779828	687917	654317	406511	220955	73,677
Louisiana	726915	708002	517762	352411	215739	153407	76556		
Maine	626915	628279	583169	501793	399455	298335	228705	151719	96,540
Maryland	780894	687049	583034	470019	447040	407350	380546	341548	319,728
Massachusetts	1457351	1231066	994514	737699	610408	523287	472040	422845	378,787
Michigan	1184059	749113	397654	212267	31639	8896	4762		
Minnesota	439706	172023	6077						
Mississippi	827922	791305	606526	375651	136621	75448	40302	8850	
Missouri	1721295	1182012	682044	383702	140455	66586	20485		
Nebraska	122993	28841							
Nevada	42491	6857							
N. Hampshire	318300	326073	317976	284574	269328	244161	214460	183858	141,885
New Jersey	906096	672035	489555	373306	320823	277575	245562	211149	184,139
New York	4382759	3880735	3097394	2428821	1918608	1372812	959049	589051	340,120
North Carolina	1071361	992622	869039	753416	737987	638829	555500	478103	393,751
Ohio	2665260	2339511	1980329	1519467	937903	581434	230760	45365	
Oregon	90239	52465	13294						
Pennsylvania	3521791	2906215	2311786	1724033	1348233	1049458	810091	602365	434,373
Rhode Island	217353	174620	147545	108830	97199	83059	76931	69122	68,825
South Carolina	765606	703708	668507	594398	581185	502741	415115	345591	249,073
Tennessee	1258520	1109801	1002717	829210	681904	422823	261727	105602	35,691
Texas	818579	604215	212592						
Vermont	330551	315098	314120	291948	280652	235981	217895	154465	85,425
Virginia	1225163	1596318	1421661	1239797	1211405	1065366	974600	880200	747,610
W. Virginia	442014								
Wisconsin	1054670	775881	305391	30945					
Arizona	9658								
Colorado	39864	34277							
Dakota	14181	4837							
Dist. Columbia	131700	75080	51687	43712	39834	33039	24023	14093	
Idaho	14999								
Montana	20595								
New Mexico	91874	93516	61547						
Utah	86786	40273	11380						
Washington	23955	11594							
Wyoming	9118								
Total	38555983	31443321	23191876	17069453	12866020	9638453	7239881	5,308483	3929,214

NATIVE AND FOREIGN POPULATION.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1860. Total population.	1860. Native born.	1860. Foreign born.	1850. Total population.	1850. Native born.	1850. Foreign born.	1850. Unknown	Chinese. 1870.	Indian. 1870	Indian. 1860.
Alabama	964201	951849	12352	771623	763089	7509	1025	-------	98	160
Arkansas	435450	431850	3600	209897	207636	1471	790	98	89	48
California	379994	233466	146528	92597	70340	21802	455	49310	7241	17798
Connecticut	460147	379451	80696	370792	331560	38518	714	2	235	16
Delaware	112216	103051	9165	91532	86268	5253	11	-------	-------	-------
Florida	140424	137115	3309	87445	84665	2669	11	-------	2	1
Georgia	1057286	1045615	11671	906185	899132	6488	565	1	40	38
Illinois	1711951	1387308	324643	851470	736149	111892	3439	1	32	32
Indiana	1350428	1232144	118284	988416	930458	55572	2386	-------	240	290
Iowa	674913	568330	106077	192214	170931	20969	314	3	48	65
Kansas	107206	94515	12691	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	914	189
Kentucky	1155684	1095885	59799	982405	949652	31420	1333	1	108	33
Louisiana	708002	627027	80975	517762	448848	68233	681	71	569	173
Maine	628279	590826	37453	583169	550878	31825	466	1	499	5
Maryland	687049	609520	77529	583034	531476	51209	349	2	4	------
Massachusetts	1231066	970960	260106	994514	827430	164024	3060	97	153	32
Michigan	749113	600020	149093	397654	341656	54703	1295	2	4926	6172
Minnesota	172023	113295	58728	6077	4097	1977	3	-------	690	2369
Mississippi	791305	782747	8558	606526	601230	4788	508	16	809	2
Missouri	1182012	1021471	160541	682044	604522	76592	930	3	75	20
Nebraska	28841	22490	6351	-------	-------	-------	------	-------	87	63
Nevada	6857	4793	2064	-------	-------	-------	------	3152	23	----
N. Hampshire	326073	305135	20938	317976	303563	14265	148	-------	23	------
New Jersey	672035	549245	122790	489555	429176	50948	431	15	16	------
New York	3880735	2879455	1001280	3097394	2436771	655929	4694	29	439	140
N. Carolina	992622	989324	3298	869039	866241	2581	217	-------	1241	1158
Ohio	2339511	2011262	328249	1980329	1757746	218193	4390	1	100	30
Oregon	52465	47342	5123	13294	12081	1022	191	3330	318	177
Pennsylvania	2906215	2475710	430505	2311786	2006207	303417	2162	14	34	7
Rhode Island	174620	137226	37394	117545	123564	23902	79	-------	154	19
S. Carolina	703708	693722	9986	668507	659743	8707	57	1	124	88
Tennessee	1109801	1088575	21226	1002717	995478	5653	1586	-------	70	60
Texas	604215	560793	43422	212592	194433	17681	478	25	379	403
Vermont	315098	282355	32743	314120	280055	33715	350	-------	14	20
Virginia	1219630	1201117	18513	1421661	1398205	22985	471	4	229	112
West Virginia	376688	360143	16545	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	1	------
Wisconsin	775881	493954	276927	305391	194099	110477	815	-------	1206	1017
Arizona	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	20	31	------
Colorado	34277	31611	2666	-------	-------	-------	------	7	180	------
Dakota	4837	3063	1774	-------	-------	-------	------	-------	1200	2261
Dist. Columbia	75080	62596	12184	51687	46720	4918	49	3	15	1
Idaho	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	4274	47	------
Montana	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	1949	157	------
New Mexico	93516	86793	6723	61547	59187	2151	209	-------	1309	10507
Utah	40273	27519	12754	11380	9326	2044	10	445	179	89
Washington	11594	8450	3144	-------	-------	-------	------	234	1319	426
Wyoming	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	143	66	------
Total	31443321	27304624	4138697	23191876	20912612	2244602	34662	63254	25731	44021

NATIVE AND FOREIGN POPULATION.

1870.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Total population.	Native born.	Foreign born.	1 or both parents foreign.	Foreign father.	Foreign mother.	Foreign father and mother.
Alabama	996,992	987,030	9,962	21,844	20,765	18,060	16,981
Arkansas	484,471	479,445	5,026	10,617	9,893	8,484	7,760
California	560,247	350,416	209,831	323,507	310,927	308,303	295,723
Connecticut	537,454	423,815	113,639	203,650	198,958	197,377	192,685
Delaware	125,015	115,879	9,136	20,361	19,338	18,311	17,288
Florida	187,748	182,781	4,967	9,295	8,734	8020	7,459
Georgia	1,184,109	1,172,982	11,127	23,814	22,901	19,413	18,500
Illinois	2,539,891	2,024,693	515,198	986,035	956,711	920,147	890,823
Indiana	1,680,637	1,539,163	141,474	441,001	326,312	298,753	284,064
Iowa	1,191,792	987,735	204,057	316,139	397,672	379,438	360,971
Kansas	364,399	316,007	48,392	87,211	82,848	77,828	73,465
Kentucky	1,321,011	1,257,613	63,398	142,720	139,336	130,183	126,799
Louisiana	726,915	665,088	61,827	132,011	127,480	118,017	113,486
Maine	626,915	578,084	48,881	91,651	84,381	81,128	73,858
Maryland	780,894	697,482	83,412	181,362	176,274	164,960	159,872
Massachusetts	1,457,351	1,104,032	353,319	626,211	609,836	606,727	590,852
Michigan	1,184,059	916,049	268,010	488,159	459,537	444,958	416,336
Minnesota	439,706	279,009	160,697	285,516	277,845	273,860	265,689
Mississippi	827,922	816,731	11,191	18,756	17,862	15,861	14,967
Missouri	1,721,295	1,499,028	222,267	465,125	453,264	428,770	416,909
Nebraska	122,993	92,245	30,748	50,017	48,277	46,392	44,652
Nevada	42,491	23,690	18,801	25,117	24,222	24,042	23,147
New Hampshire	318,300	288,689	29,611	44,592	42,862	42,550	40,820
New Jersey	906,096	717,153	188,494	350,316	340,661	330,900	321,245
New York	4,382,759	3,244,406	1,138,353	2,225,627	2,161,752	2,106,987	2,043,112
North Carolina	1,071,361	1,068,332	3,029	6,464	6,148	4,644	4,328
Ohio	2,665,260	2,292,767	372,393	849,815	816,780	764,380	731,345
Oregon	90,923	79,323	11,600	20,705	19,320	17,541	16,156
Pennsylvania	3,521,791	2,976,530	545,261	1,151,208	1,108,603	1,034,456	991,851
Rhode Island	217,353	161,957	55,396	95,090	92,762	92,311	89,983
South Carolina	705,606	697,532	8,074	16,449	15,875	14,156	13,582
Tennessee	1,258,520	1,239,204	19,316	36,326	35,045	31,861	30,580
Texas	818,579	756,168	62,411	107,327	103,713	100,047	96,233
Vermont	330,551	283,396	47,155	83,615	79,287	76,482	72,154
Virginia	1,225,163	1,211,409	13,754	30,794	29,677	24,751	23,634
West Virginia	442,014	424,923	17,091	46,204	43,917	39,077	36,790
Wisconsin	1,054,670	690,171	364,499	717,832	700,402	688,189	670,759
Arizona	9,658	3,849	5,809	6,766	6,612	6,654	6,500
Colorado	39,864	33,265	6,599	10,707	10,200	9,854	9,347
Dakota	14,181	9,366	4,815	7,319	7,137	6,786	6,604
Dist. of Columbia	131,700	115,446	16,254	34,106	32,721	30,568	29,183
Idaho	14,999	7,114	7,885	9,305	9,180	9,122	9,906
Montana	20,595	12,616	7,979	10,246	9,926	9,682	9,362
New Mexico	91,874	86,254	5,620	8,677	8,392	7,636	7,351
Utah	86,786	56,084	30,702	59,024	54,649	50,182	51,807
Washington	23,955	18,931	5,024	8,382	7,880	7,069	6,567
Wyoming	9,118	5,605	3,513	5,000	4,850	4,710	4,560
Total	38,555,983	32,989,437	5,566,546	10,892,015	10,521,233	10,105,627	9,734,845

NOTE TO NATIVE AND FOREIGN TABLE.—Of the sums contained in the four columns in order, respectively, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh, in this table, that in the seventh is invariably the smallest, and that in the fourth invariably the largest. The sum given in column five may be larger or smaller than that in column six, according to circumstances. It *happens* to be larger in the case of every State, and of each of the Territories except Arizona and Utah (in the latter case for obvious reasons). The mathematical proof of column four is by adding columns five and six, and subtracting column seven. The difference between columns six and column seven yields the number having foreign mothers but native fathers.

THE LAST CHARGE OF THE FRENCH AT SEDAN.

THE FIELD GUNS CAPTURED BY THE GERMANS AT SEDAN.

LEADERS OF THE FRENCH ARMIES, IN THE GREAT WAR WITH GERMANY

POPULATION OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

CITIES.	1870.	1860.	CITIES.	1870.	1860.
Adrian, Mich.	8438	6213	Frederick, Md.	8526	8143
Akron, Ohio.	10006	3477	Galesburg, Ill.	10158	4953
Albany, N. Y.	69422	62367	Galveston, Tex.	13818	7307
Alexandria, Va.	13570	12652	Georgetown, D. C.	11384	8733
Allegheny, Pa.	53180	28702	Grand Rapids, Mich.	16507	8084
Allentown, Pa.	13884	8025	Hamilton, Ohio	11081	7223
Alton, Ill.	8665	3585	Hannibal, Mo.	10125	6505
Altoona, Pa.	10610	3591	Harrisburg, Pa.	23104	13405
Atlanta, Ga.	21789	9554	Hartford, Ct.	37180	17956
Auburn, N. Y.	17225	10986	Haverhill, Mass.	13092	9995
Augusta, Ga.	15389	14875	Hoboken, N. J.	20297	9659
Aurora, Ill.	11162	6011	Houston, Tex.	9382	4845
Baltimore, Md.	267354	212418	Hudson, N. Y.	8615	7187
Bangor, Me.	18289	16407	Indianapolis, Ind.	48244	18611
Bellville, Ill.	8146	7520	Jackson, Mich.	11447	4999
Biddeford, Me.	10282	9349	Jacksonville, Ill.	9203	5528
Binghamton, N. Y.	12692	8325	Janesville, Wis.	8789	7702
Bloomington, Ill.	14590	7075	Jersey City, N. J.	82546	29226
Boston, Mass.	250526	202977	Kansas City, Mo.	32200	4418
Bridegeport, Ct.	18969	13299	Keokuk, Iowa	12766	8136
Brooklyn, N. Y.	396099	266661	Knoxville, Tenn.	8682	—
Buffalo, "	117714	81129	Lafayette, Ind.	13506	9387
Burlington, Iowa.	14930	6700	Lancaster, Pa.	20233	17603
Burlington, Vt.	14387	—	Lawrence, Kan.	8320	1645
Cambridge, Mass.	39634	2606	Lawrence, Mass.	28921	17639
Camden, N. J.	20045	14358	Leavenworth, Kan.	17873	7420
Canton, Ohio.	8660	4041	Lewiston, Me.	13600	7424
Chicago, Ill.	298977	112172	Lexington, Ky.	14801	9321
Charleston, S. C.	48956	40467	Little Rock, Ark.	12380	3727
Charlestown, Mass.	28323	25065	Lockport, N. Y.	12426	—
Chillicothe, Ohio	8920	4581	Logansport, Ind.	8950	2979
Chester, Pa.	9485	4631	Louisville, Ky.	100753	68033
Cincinnati, Ohio	216239	161041	Lowell, Mass.	40928	36827
Cleveland, "	92829	43417	Lynn, "	28233	19083
Columbia, S. C.	9298	8052	Macon, Ga.	10810	8247
Columbus, Ohio	31274	18554	Manchester, N. H.	23536	20107
Cohoes, N. Y.	15357	8799	Madison, Ind.	10709	8130
Concord, N. H.	12241	6896	Madison, Wis.	9176	6611
Council Bluffs, Iowa	10020	2011	Mansfield, Ohio	8029	4581
Covington, Ky.	24505	16471	Memphis, Tenn.	40226	22621
Davenport, Iowa	20038	11267	Milwaukee, Wis.	71440	45246
Dayton, Ohio	30473	20081	Minneapolis, Min.	13066	2563
Des Moines, Iowa	12035	3965	Mobile, Ala.	32034	29250
Detroit, Mich.	79577	45619	Nashua, N. H.	10543	1065
Dover, N. H.	9294	8502	Nashville, Tenn.	25865	16988
Dubuque, Iowa	18434	13000	Natchez, Miss.	9057	6612
East Saginaw, Mich.	11350	3001	New Albany, Ind.	15396	12647
Elizabeth, N. J.	20832	11567	Newark, N. J.	105059	71941
Elmira, N. Y.	15863	—	New Bedford, Mass.	21320	22300
Erie, Pa.	19646	9419	Newburgh, N. Y.	17014	—
Evansville, Ind.	21830	11484	Newburyport, Mass.	21595	13401
Fall River, Mass.	26766	14026	New Brunswick, N. J.	15058	11256
Fond du Lac, Wis.	12764	5450	New Haven, Ct.	50840	39267
Fort Wayne, Ind.	17718	—	New Orleans, La.	191418	118670

POPULATION OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES,
(Concluded).

CITIES.	1870.	1860.	CITIES.	1870.	1870.
Newport, Ky.	15087	10046	St. Paul, Min.	20030	10400
Newport, R. I.	12521	10508	Salem, Mass.	24117	22252
New York, N. Y.	942292	805051	Salt Lake City, Utah	12854	8207
Norfolk, Va.	19229	14620	San Antonio, Texas	12250	8235
Norwich, Ct.	16653	14048	Sandusky, Ohio	13000	8408
Ogdensburgh, N. Y.	10076	7409	San Francisco, Cal.	149473	56802
Omaha, Neb.	16083	1881	Savannah, Ga.	28335	22292
Orange, N. J.	9348	8877	Shenectady, N. Y.	10029	9576
Oshkosh, Wis.	12643	6086	Scranton, Pa.	35092	9223
Oswego, N. Y.	20910	16816	Springfield, Ill.	17364	9320
Patterson, N. J.	33579	19586	Springfield, Mass.	26703	15199
Peoria, Ill.	22849	14045	Springfield, Ohio	12652	7002
Petersburg, Va.	18950	18266	Steubenville, Ohio	8107	6154
Philadelphia, Pa.	674022	565529	Stockton, Cal.	18966	3679
Pittsburgh, Pa.	86076	49217	Syracuse, N. Y.	43051	28110
Portland, Me.	31413	26341	Taunton, Mass.	10629	15376
Portland, Oregon	9293	2868	Terre Haute, Ind.	16103	8594
Portsmouth, N. H.	9211	9335	Titusville, Pa.	8639	438
Portsmouth, Ohio	10592	6268	Toledo, Ohio	31584	13768
Portsmouth, Va.	10492	9488	Trenton, N. J.	22874	17228
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	20080	14726	Troy, N. Y.	46465	39232
Providence, R. I.	68904	50666	Utica, "	28804	22529
Quincy, Ill.	24052	13718	Vicksburg, Miss.	12443	4591
Racine, Wis.	9880	7822	Washington, D. C.	109199	61122
Raleigh, N. C.	7790	4780	Waterbury, Ct.	10826	10004
Reading, Pa.	33930	23162	Watertown, N. Y.	9336	—
Richmond, Ind.	9445	6623	Wheeling, W. V.	19289	14083
Richmond, Va.	51038	37907	Williamsport, Pa.	16030	5568
Rochester, N. Y.	62386	48204	Wilmington, Del.	30841	21254
Rome, "	11000	3584	Wilmington, N. C.	13446	9552
Sacramento, Cal.	16283	12797	Worcester, Mass.	41105	24960
St. Joseph, Mo.	19565	8932	York, Pa.	11003	8605
St. Louis, "	310864	160773	Zanesville, Ohio	10011	9229

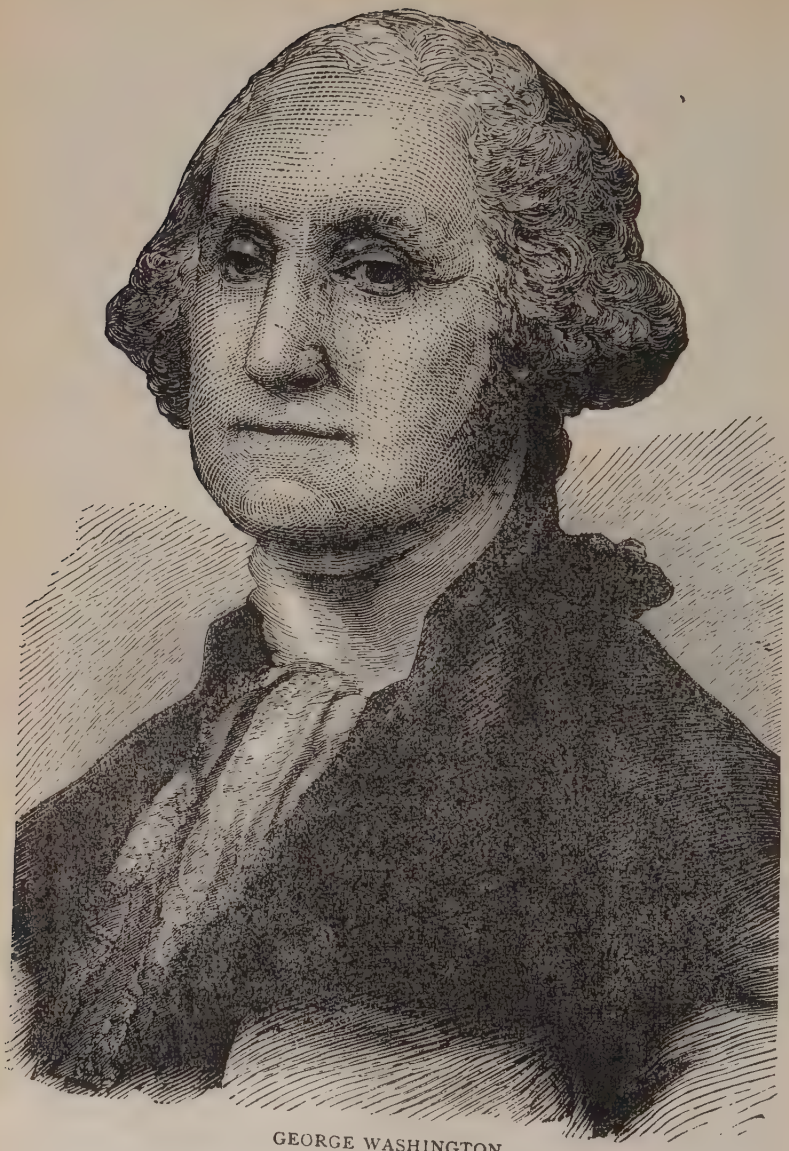
FACTS RELATING TO THE UNITED STATES.

Year Set'd	States.	Capitals.	Where Settled.	By Whom.	Adm'ed to the Union
1565	Florida	Tallahassee	St. Augustine	Spaniards	1845
1607	Virginia*	Richmond	Jamestown	English	1788 †
1614	New York*	Albany	Manhattan	Dutch	1788 †
1620	Massachusetts*	Boston	Plymouth	English Puritans	1788 †
1623	New Hampshire*	Concord	Dover	English	1788 †
1624	New Jersey*	Trenton	Bergen	Dutch and Danes	1787 †
1625	Maine	Augusta	Bristol	English	1820
1627	Delaware*	Dover	Cape Henelopen	Swedes and Finns	1787 †
1633	Connecticut*	Hartford	Windsor	From Massachu'ts	1788 †
1634	Maryland*	Annapolis	St. Mary's	English	1788 †
1636	Rhode Island*	Prov. and Newport	Providence	English	1790 †
1663	North Carolina*	Raleigh	Albermarle	English	1789 †
1669	Wisconsin	Madison	Green Bay	French	1848
1670	Michigan	Lansing	Detroit	French	1837
1670	South Carolina*	Columbia	Port Royal	English	1788 †
1682	Pennsylvania*	Harrisburg	Philadelphia	English	1787 †
1685	Arkansas	Little Rock	Arkansas Post	French	1826
1690	Texas	Austin	San Antonia	Spaniards	1845
1690	Indiana	Indianapolis	Vincennes	French	1816
1699	Louisiana	New Orleans	Iberville	French	1812
1711	Alabama	Montgomery	Mobile	French	1814
1716	Mississippi	Jackson	Natchez	French	1817
1720	Illinois	Springfield	Kaskaskia	French	1818
1725	Vermont	Montpelier	Fort Dummer	From Massachu'ts	1791
1733	Georgia*	Atlanta	Savanna	English	1788 †
1757	Tennessee	Nashville	Fort London	From N. Carolina	1796
1764	Missouri	Jefferson City	St. Louis	French	1821
1769	California	Sacramento	San Diego	Spaniards	1850
1775	Kentucky	Frankfort	Boonesboro	From Virginia	1792
1788	Ohio	Columbus	Marietta	From N. England	1803
1811	Oregon	Salem	Astoria	From New York	1859
1833	Iowa	Des Moines	Burlington	From N. England	1846
1846	Minnesota	St. Paul	St. Paul	From N. England	1857
1850	Kansas	Topeka	Ft. Leavenworth	Fr. N. E. & W. St's	1861
1861	Nevada	Carson City	Washoe	From California	1864
1862	West Virginia	Charleston	See Virginia	Formed from Va.	1862
1854	Nebraska	Lincoln		Fr. N. E. & W. St's	1867

* The thirteen original States. † Date of adoption of Constitution.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Residence	Born.	Installed into Office.	Age at that time.	Term of Office.	Died.	Age at death
George Washington	Va.	1732	1779	57	8 years	Dec. 14, 1799	68
John Adams	Mass.	1735	1797	62	4 "	July 4, 1826	91
Thomas Jefferson	Va.	1743	1801	58	8 "	July 4, 1826	83
James Madison	Va.	1751	1809	58	8 "	June 23, 1836	85
James Monroe	Va.	1758	1817	58	8 "	July 4, 1831	72
John Quincy Adams	Mass.	1767	1825	58	4 "	Feb. 23, 1848	80
Andrew Jackson	Tenn.	1767	1829	62	8 "	June 8, 1845	78
Martin Van Buren	N. Y.	1782	1837	55	4 "	July 24, 1862	80
William H. Harrison	Ohio	1773	1841	68	1 month	April 4, 1841	68
John Tyler	Va.	1790	1841	51	3 yrs. 11 mos.	Jan. 17, 1862	72
James K. Polk	Tenn.	1795	1845	49	4 years	June 15, 1846	54
Zachary Taylor	La.	1784	1849	65	1 y. 4 m. 5 d.	July 9, 1850	66
Millard Fillmore	N. Y.	1800	1850	50	2 y. 7 m. 26 d.	March 8, 1874	74
Franklin Pierce	N. H.	1804	1853	49	4 years	Oct. 8, 1860	65
James Buchanan	Penn.	1791	1857	66	4 "	June 1, 1868	77
Abraham Lincoln	Ill.	1809	1861	52	4 y. 1 m. 10 d.	April 14, 1865	56
Andrew Johnson	Tenn.	1808	1865	57	3 y. 10 m. 20 d.	July 31, 1875	----
Ulysses S. Grant	Ill.	1822	1869	47			----



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF THE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

IN the line of march, whether progressive or retrogressive, we have been led through all ages by men who, by the strength of their intellect or the force of their will, or by a subtle power, inexpressible by words, but to which we yield almost insensibly, have proved themselves masters of the masses. If his instincts are pure, and his aims and tendencies elevated, his influence upon the world will be beneficial; if they are corrupt and degraded, while he grovels in the filth and slime of the dregs of social or national vices, he turns backward the wheel of the car of progress; its motion is reversed, and the jar and shock is felt, it may be, to the ends of the earth, causing disastrous results to the generations following, even greater than to the present. A thousand men in the quiet walks of private life might practice the vices that are common to this age or sphere, and they would pass comparatively unnoticed; but once a man stepps out from the masses and takes a position above them, the influence of his lightest act is a power for good or evil.

With a desire to present, in a condensed form, sketches of the lives of those who may serve, by their virtues and admirable qualities of mind and habit, as models for our imitation, or whose vices, though brilliant, are repulsive enough to make them a warning to him who reads even while he runs, we have chosen a few from almost every rank and profession of those whose names are bright on history's page, and whose services render it a pleasure to record their acts, while their virtues, far more than the

historian's skill, lend interest to the subject. It is meet that those who have been Chief Executives of our Nation should have a place; that those who have so generally been an honor to the people should be remembered at this time.

The veneration which we feel for Washington, and the reverence and respect which is the involuntary tribute of the world to his memory, make it most fitting that we give him the first place on the pages of the book which we dedicate to his countrymen, as they have given him already the first place in their hearts.

An enthusiastic writer has declared Washington to be the most perfect character that has adorned any era of history. While it was grand and majestic, I believe there were not wanting, then or since, those who were just as pure, unselfish, and honest as he, who loved our country well, and labored, and suffered, and died, if need be, to defend its rights, its liberty, and its honor. At that early day, when despotism stood with bated breath, waiting till the first weak cry should proclaim that even in a manger in the New World the young babe Freedom had been born, that it might send forth and slay it; when devotion to the new power was treason to the old; when devotion to the Union that was being christened with the baptismal drops that flowed from the brave hearts of those that stood to guard it, with one hand upon the sword and the other grasping the banner whose stars should lead them to victory, their eyes turned to the hills from whence their help must come, appealing to Him who was, and is, and will forever be, Lord of Lords and King of Kings, was counted a crime against the "powers that be," of sufficient magnitude to cost a man his life; he was indeed a hero who dare lead the feeble enterprise to a grand success—a success so magnificent that crowned heads trembled on their thrones as they beheld it.

Of this type of men was he who is enshrined in the hearts of this nation as the "Father of his Country." He was born February 22d, 1732, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia. His education was domestic and scanty, but his principles were such as should underlie a character that is strong enough to wrestle with the forces that were brought to bear against it.

He was by profession a civil engineer, and in that wild, new country, there must have been ample need for his services. He also directed much of his attention to the science of arms, in the

use of which it was necessary every young man should be a proficient, since they were liable to be called at any moment to repel the Indians, who were led on by skillful Frenchmen. At the age of nineteen he was appointed one of the adjutant-generals of Virginia, which gave him the rank of major. So exemplary was his conduct, so cool his judgment, and so faithful, even to the minutest duty, that he was advanced to a colonelcy and sent by Governor Dinwiddie to the Ohio, with dispatches to the French commander, who was erecting fortifications from Canada to New Orleans, in violation of existing treaties. His conduct proved him worthy of the highest confidence, while the delicacy, yet shrewdness with which the rather dangerous and difficult matter was managed, proved him at once a statesman and a diplomatist.

In the spring of 1755, Washington accompanied General Braddock as an aid, in that disastrous and disgraceful expedition against Fort Du Quesne, and had his advice been followed, success, and not defeat, must have followed it. Three years later Washington commanded the Virginians in another expedition against the fort, which gave him a splendid victory. At the close of this campaign he withdrew from the army and married Mrs. Martha Custis, the widow of Colonel Daniel P. Custis. The lady was older than her husband and the mother of two children, but was as charming as she was sensible, and as fascinating as she was wise, and though it is even more than hinted that Madame Washington was slightly strong-minded, and had a will of her own, gave impromptu curtain lectures, and said "my dear" to her husband with a sharpness of tone which contrasted oddly with that affectionate and loving title, we have reason to believe that his domestic life was very happy, and her intelligent and patriotic conduct, both as the wife and widow of America's best-loved hero, will ever be remembered with gratitude and admiration.

In 1759 he was elected to the House of Burgesses, and continued to be returned to that body, with the exception of short intervals of rest, until 1774, when he was elected to represent Virginia in the Continental Congress. His well-tempered zeal, and his military skill, which enabled him to suggest the wisest and safest national defences when the young country was in extremity, soon drew all eyes and hearts to him as one qualified to direct and lead in that hour of extreme peril. Even after the lapse of nearly a

hundred years, our pulse beats quicker, and tears spring unbidden, as we recall to mind those years of struggle and suffering that bought us the liberty we prize so highly and hold as a sacred birthright, guarding it as we guard no other thing this side of Heaven. Thank God for the firm hand and the strong heart and the lion courage of our Washington! We can almost see him now as he knelt amid the snows of Valley Forge and, gathering together the band of heroes whose sufferings were almost past human endurance, but whose faith was also almost superhuman, prayed for the guidance and protection which was so much needed, and which alone could save the cause for which they were sacrificing their lives.

Immediately after the opening scene of the revolutionary drama, at Lexington and Concord, when an army had concentrated at Cambridge, he was unanimously elected Commander-in-Chief of the American Army. The purity of purpose, the self-sacrificing spirit, the conscientiousness and honor with which he discharged every duty relating to that trying position, are too well known to require any pen so weak as ours to linger in the detail.

After bringing the war to a triumphant close, while the green laurels whose leaves, wet with the grateful tears of his countrymen as their fingers wrought them together, were yet fresh upon his brow, he hastened to Annapolis, where Congress was then in session, and on the 23d of December formally tendered the resignation of his commission.

In May, 1787, he was elected to the convention which met at Philadelphia for the purpose of forming the Constitution, and presided over its deliberations; and it was here, while their proud, free spirits, which the armed legions of tyranny and despotism could not subdue or force to yield, yet smarted under the wrongs they had resented, that they framed the Constitution that has made ours pre-eminently the first nation upon God's footstool. Its leading clause should be graven in every heart, over every hearth-stone, altar, and pulpit in the land, and be our national watchword in war and our motto in peace, as also the rule of our lives:— "*Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or of the right of the people to assemble, and petition the government for a redress of grievances.*" After the Con-

stitution was adopted by the people, Washington was elected first President of the United States for four years, at the end of which time he was re-elected for a second term.

There is scarcely a school boy or girl in America who is not familiar with his farewell address, and looking over his life, we can see how like himself was that tender and humble sentence in which was the sentiment of a Christian, a philosopher and a patriot. "I consider it an indispensable duty to close this last act of my official life by commending the interests of our *dearest country* to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them, to His holy keeping."

Washington died December 14th, 1799, at the age of 68 years.

JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS,

THE second President of the United States was John Adams, whose fame as a statesman and patriot is imperishable. He was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, October 17, 1735. He early displayed fine talents, and graduated from Cambridge with great credit. He studied law, and was admitted to practice, and rapidly attained that high distinction which his superior capacity entitled him to. From the very outbreak of our troubles with Great Britian, he took a prominent part in all the war measures that were originated and himself suggested the appointment of Washington as Commander-in-Chief of the army. He was one of the framers and signers of the Declaration of Independence; and the next year he visited France to form a treaty of alliance and commerce with that country. In 1785 he was sent to England as the first minister from this country; and on his return was elected Vice-President, in which office he served two terms, and in 1797 was elected to succeed Washington as Chief Executive of the nation. He was succeeded by Mr. Jefferson, in 1801, after which he retired to his farm in Quincy, where his declining years were passed in the gratification of his taste for reading and study.

The fiftieth anniversary of our American Independence, July 4, 1826, was remarkable, not alone for the event it commemorated, but for the decease of two of the most active participants in the measures by which it was secured to us. On that day Adams and Jefferson were both gathered to their fathers.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON was born at Shadwell, Albemarle county, Virginia, April 13, 1743. He was educated at William and Mary, and was a great student, having a fondness for natural history quite remarkable. He studied law with the renowned George Wythe, and was a celebrated pupil, but never became a distinguished lawyer. Soon after his admission to the bar, he was elected to the House of Representatives, and there had abundant opportunity to exercise his fine business abilities. British oppression roused him to perfect frenzy, and with his pen he gave to his country the fiery thoughts that his indignation kindled.

In June, 1775, he took his seat in the Continental Congress, from Virginia, and here soon became conspicuous as one of the most ardent friends of American freedom. He was chairman of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence; indeed, this instrument is conceded to have been mainly his own work. He succeeded Patrick Henry in 1779 as Governor of Virginia. In 1783 he was sent to France to join the ministers of our country—Mr. Adams and Dr. Franklin. In 1785 he succeeded Dr. Franklin as ambassador, and performed that duty for two years, when he returned home. He was Secretary of State under Washington, in which position he gave the highest satisfaction.

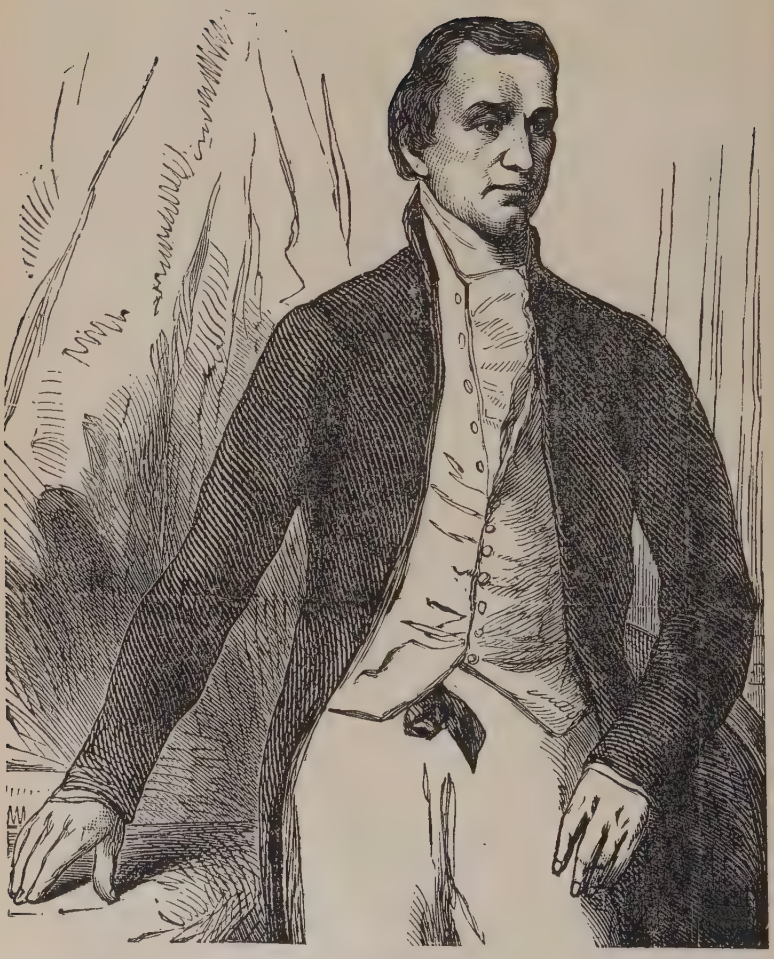
In 1795 he was elected Vice-President of the United States, and took his seat the 4th of the following March. In 1801 he was elected President of the United States, a position which he held for eight years. At the close of the last term, he retired from active life, and died July 4, 1826, just fifty years after his pen traced the words "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created free and equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; amongst which are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness."

He was a man of strong mind, strong will and strong prejudices, and no man ever labored harder to convert every one with whom he came in contact, to his own mode of thinking; yet he was honest and patriotic, and his loss was deeply felt.

JAMES MADISON.

THE fourth President of the United States, was born in Orange County, Virginia, March 16, 1751. His studies were far advanced under the care of a most accomplished preceptor, and he graduated with the highest honors. He turned his attention to political life, and in 1776 was elected to the general assembly of Virginia, and for more than forty years was constantly in office and served his State faithfully, in small as well as in great things, from legislator to President. While he was a member of the Executive Council of the State of Virginia, he won the highest regard and respect of his associates, by his honest and faithful discharge of duty, and in the year 1780, he took his seat in the Continental Congress, and became immediately an active and leading member. In 1787 he became a member of the Convention held in Philadelphia for the purpose of drafting a constitution for the new government, whose national existence was but an experiment, the success of which the world doubted. He was one of the joint authors of "The Federalist;" sharing the labor with Alexander Hamilton and John Jay. He was a member of the State Convention of Virginia which met to adopt the Constitution, and was chosen a member of the first Congress which was organized under it.

In 1861 he was one of the presidential electors, and Jefferson at once offered him a place in his cabinet, where he entered upon the duties of Secretary of State; in 1809 he succeeded Jefferson to the Presidency, and served in that office two terms. After this, he returned to his home in Virginia, where he passed the remainder of his days in quiet content, until June, 1826, when the last survivor of the framers of the Constitution passed peacefully away.



JAMES MONROE.

JAMES MONROE

WAS the fifth President of the United States. He was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, April 28, 1728. He was a graduate at William and Mary, but anxious to aid in the struggle for independence, he joined the army under General Mercer, as cadet, and soon distinguished himself in several well-fought battles, and rapid promotions followed, until he reached the rank of captain. At Harlem Heights and White Plains he shared the defeat and sufferings of Washington, through New Jersey; at Trenton he rejoiced in the triumph of our arms over the Hessians, and though severely wounded, carried the musket ball in his shoulder through the day and "fought out the fight." He was, afterwards, aid to Lord Sterling, with the rank of major, and if he earned for himself fame, it is very certain that he found no flowery path to tread. In the military service of those days, when the leaders of our battles and our national councils looked upon their country's peril with an anguish that words can never convey to this generation, and when their country's honor was something to them which we fear modern statesmen and soldiers can not understand, men worked with an energy and self-sacrificing spirit that made each one a host. At the bloody battles of Brandywine, Germantown and Monmouth, Monroe is said to have particularly distinguished himself for his bravery and courage; and by the coolness which he displayed. Ambitious to command a regiment of his own, he obtained a dismissal from the army, returned to Virginia, where he met so many discouraging obstacles that he gave it up, and resumed his law studies in the office of Mr. Jefferson.

In 1794 he went as Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of Versailles, and after settling the cession of Louisiana to the United States, he went to England to succeed Mr. King as Minister at the

Court of St. James. The little difficulty between the two countries in regard to the Chesapeake, placed him in so unpleasant a position that he returned home and was soon after chosen Governor of the State, in which office he remained until called by Mr. Madison to assume the duties of Secretary of State.

In 1817 he was elected President of the United States, and in 1821 was unanimously re-elected, with the exception of a single vote in New Hampshire. His entire administration was marked by peace, quiet and prosperity.

When the convention was called to revise the Constitution of the State of Virginia, he was chosen to preside over its action. Soon after he removed to New York City, where he remained until his death, which occurred July 4th, 1831, when amid the pealing of bells and the thundering of artillery that proclaimed the nation's jubilant rejoicing at the anniversary of independence, the angels whispered, "Come up higher."

J. Q. Adams

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

SIXTH President of the United States, was born in Quincy, Massachusetts, May 11th, 1767, graduated at Harvard College, and became a law student in the office of Hon. Theophilus Parsons, for many years Chief Justice of Massachusetts. His literary tastes gained him considerable attention, and some of his essays are commended as excellent. Under Washington's administration he was appointed minister to the Netherlands, and afterwards to Portugal. He was, at different periods, minister to Prussia, Russia and England, and was one of the commissioners who negotiated the treaty of peace with Great Britain, at Ghent.

During Mr. Monroe's entire administration of eight years, he held the office of Secretary of State, after which he was elected President of the United States by the House of Representatives, the people failing to make a choice. Like his father, he met very strong opposition from the political party then coming into power, and his service ended with one term—being defeated in re-election by Gen. Jackson. Soon after he was chosen representative in Congress, and was re-chosen at each successive election until his death.

Two days previous to his decease, while at his duties in the House, he received a paralytic stroke, from which he never recovered his consciousness. Mr. Adams was a man of fine intellect and great endowments; his mind was cultivated and enriched to a high degree. The government lost, in him, one of its brightest ornaments.

ANDREW JACKSON.

ANDREW JACKSON

SEVENTH President of the United States. The fame of "Old Hickory" is too far spread to need that our feeble powers be exerted to add to it one ray of luster. He was born at Waxhaw, Lancaster county, South Carolina, 1767, and manifested, from childhood, something of the martial spirit which made him the hero of New Orleans.

One author said of him, with a spice of malice, that a more turbulent, roaring, rollicking youngster never lived than this same soldier and statesman. In 1790 he fixed his residence at Nashville, and married. In 1795 he assisted in framing the Constitution of Tennessee, and was sent to Congress as the first representative of the new State. Mr. Jackson studied law and practised it to a limited extent, but it is conceded, even by his warmest friends, that in this profession he was not "a success."

In 1797 he was elected to the Senate of the United States, and upon the expiration of his term of office here, he was appointed Judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. In 1804 he resigned that office and retired to the "Hermitage," near Nashville. When war was proclaimed with Great Britain, in 1812, he commanded the militia of his district, and in 1815 obtained the victory at New Orleans, which was the crowning glory of his military life. Three years later he made a successful campaign against the Indians in our Southern Territories and States.

In 1812 he was appointed Governor of Florida, then a territory. In 1823 the appointment of Minister to Mexico was tendered to him, which he declined, but was elected as member of Congress from Tennessee. In 1824 he received many votes for President, but was not elected until 1828, and was re-elected by an immense majority in 1832. In the spring of 1837, weary and worn with his active life, he gave to younger hands and brains the cares of State, and retired again to his beloved home, the "Hermitage," where he spent the remainder of his days in the peace and quiet which he had so well earned. His death occurred here, June 8th, 1845.

M. Van Buren

MARTIN VAN BUREN,

EIGHTH President of the United States, was a native of Kinderhook, New York. He was born September 5, 1782. Having prepared himself for the study of the law, he entered the office of Francis Sylvester, where he remained six years, meantime giving much thought to politics. His ambition pointed out to him that field as the one where he could earn most rapidly the fame he craved. Fully satisfied of this, he studied until he acquired much perfection in the art of pleasing, with a view to local popularity, and was so successful, that while yet a boy, before his cheeks had lost their blushing roundness or girlish smoothness—in his "teens"—he was sent as delegate to a convention in his native county, at which important political measures were to be taken.

The first public office he ever held was that of Surrogate of Columbia county, to which he was appointed in 1808. In 1812–16, he was elected to the State Senate and became a leader of the Madison party. In 1821 he was elected United States Senator, which position he held for eight years. In 1828 he was elected Governor of his native State, but filled the gubernatorial chair only a few weeks. When General Jackson was elected President, Mr. Van Buren was offered the post of Secretary of State, which he accepted.

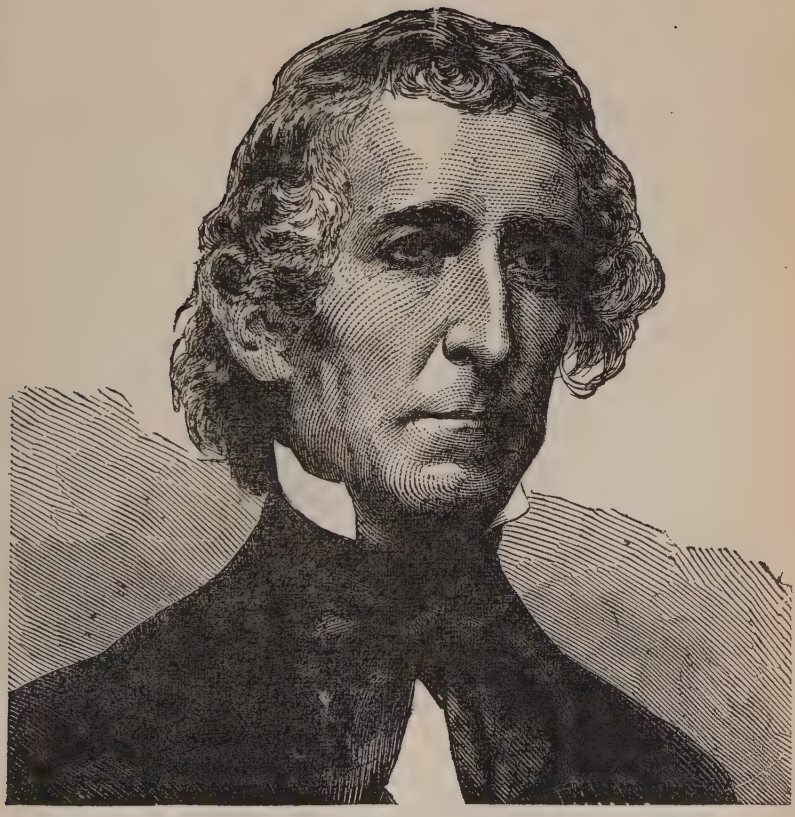
In 1836 he was put in nomination for the Chief Magistracy, to which he was elected by a large majority over General Harrison; but at the next election the tide turned upon him, and he only received sixty votes out of two hundred and ninety-four. After his defeat he returned to Kinderhook, and subsequently visited Europe, whither he went hoping that a change of climate might restore to health one of his sons. Soon after his return to America he accepted the nomination of the Free Soil party for the Presidency, but was unsuccessful. From this time forward he lived in retirement, and devoted most of his time to writing a history of the political party with which he was identified, the publication of which occurred after his death, July 24th, 1862.

W H Harrison

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON,

NINTH President of the United States, was born in Charles City county, Virginia, February 9th, 1773. The Presidential line beginning with Washington, who was a civil engineer, is an unbroken succession of lawyers; till now, by some freak or accident, we find a medical man who reached the high position of President of the first Republic of the world. He graduated at a time when our northwestern frontier was harrassed by the Indians, and feeling that his country, more than his profession, demanded his services, he accepted an ensign's Commission from President Washington, and joined the army. He was soon promoted to a lieutenancy, and was commended by General Wayne, under whose command he was engaged in several actions. After the bloody battle of Miami Rapids, he was promoted to the rank of Captain, for his brave and noble conduct during the engagement, and placed in command at Fort Washington. In 1797 he resigned his commission in the army, for the purpose of accepting the office of Secretary of the Northwestern Territory, from which he was sent to Congress in 1799. He was appointed first Governor of Indiana, while to his civil and military duties he added those of superintendent, and commissioner of Indian affairs. During his administration he completed thirteen treaties, and gained the important battle of Tippecanoe, the news of which was received with such wild enthusiasm.

During the war of 1812 he was made Commander of the Army of the Northwest,—remembered by the prominent part he bore in the defense of Fort Meigs, and also in the victory of the Thames. In 1814 he was appointed, with Governor Shelby and Gen. Cass, to treat with the Indians in general council at Greenville, and the following year led a commission to form treaties with other tribes, to the entire satisfaction of both parties. In 1816 he was appointed member of Congress from Ohio, and in 1828 was sent to the republic of Columbia as Minister Plenipotentiary. In 1837 as candidate for the Presidency, he was defeated; but four years later, was elected by a large majority. He died April 4th, just one month after entering upon his duties.



JOHN TYLER.

JOHN TYLER.

JOHN TYLER, who succeeded General Harrison as President, was born at Williamsburg, Virginia, March 29th, 1790, and graduated from William and Mary's College, and was admitted to the bar; when in his twenty-second year, was sent to the Virginia legislature, and in his twenty-sixth year to Congress. Eight years later, in 1825, he was elected Governor of Virginia, and in 1827 United States Senator from his native State, and while there, voted and labored strongly against the Tariff Bill of 1828, and against re-chartering the United States Bank; and also vetoed the bill for the establishment of the "Fiscal Bank," which was again resurrected, remodeled, rechristened and urged upon the people as the "Fiscal Corporation of the United States" passed both houses successfully, only to be again vetoed, at the last moment, by the President.

His party were terribly disappointed in him, and every member of his cabinet, except Mr. Webster, resigned his place. The vacancies were immediately filled with men who rallied around him and were staunch and true in that time of his utmost need. The charges and imputations brought were so intolerably bitter that he turned, with his heart sick and sore with abuse, and looking forward, exclaimed, "I appeal from the vituperations of the present day to the impartial pen of history, in confidence that neither my motives nor my acts will bear the interpretation which for sinister motives has been put upon them."

In the winter of 1860–61, Mr. Tyler was an active agency in organizing the Peace Conference, and presided over its deliberations. This was, indeed, his last public work. He died in Virginia in 1862.

James K. Polk

JAMES K. POLK,

ELEVENTH President, was born in Mechlenburg, N. C., November 2, 1795. In 1809 his family removed to Nashville, Tennessee, where his education was completed, and where he studied law in the office of Hon. Felix Grundy, who proved a most able teacher and consistent friend. He was admitted to the bar in 1820, and already interested in the politics of the country, he now took an active part in it, studying it closely and deeply. In 1823 he was elected to the legislature, and while yet but twenty-nine years old, was chosen a member of Congress, which office he held for fourteen years; was also for several sessions Speaker of the House. In 1844, he was unexpectedly nominated for the Presidency, elected by a large majority over Mr. Clay and inaugurated March 4, 1845.

War with Mexico, already impending, broke forth now, but was, as history shows, but a succession of easily won victories for the Americans, and the conquest of new territory. Mr Polk, though a wise and able manager and a shrewd diplomatist, was still not popular, and lost his reëlection. His health was very delicate and failed rapidly under the severe labors of his office; he did not long survive after reaching his home in Nashville, but died June 15th, 1849.

Z. Taylor

ZACHARY TAYLOR

WAS born in Orange county, Virginia, November 24th, 1790, and was the twelfth President of the United States. His boyhood was passed in the wild and exciting scenes of the frontier. In 1808 he received the appointment of lieutenant in the United States infantry, and afterwards was promoted to a captain for brave service against the Indians. In 1812 he was in command of Fort Harrison, which he defended against fearful odds. From long intimacy with the wily savage, he became so familiar with their mode of warfare and habits of life that his services were considered almost indispensable by the government. He was promoted from rank to rank, until, in 1840, he held the rank of brigadier-general. In 1845 he was stationed on the American shore of the Rio Grande, simply to act on the defensive, unless attacked. Opposite Metamora he had built Fort Brown, and this being bombarded, gave him his first opportunity to display his valor. At Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, he fought against fearful odds, and gained in each a victory which crowned him with honor, after which conquests he returned home with laurels fresh and fair, and upon the treaty of peace was met with every demonstration of respect and admiration; indeed, it seemed as if the people's enthusiasm was boundless, and of course there was but one appropriate way of testifying it. Since they could not offer him a crown and a throne, they must needs offer him the chief seat in the White House, which being accepted, he entered upon his duties March 4th, 1849. But already advanced in years, and broken down with the hardships he had endured, he lived but a little more than a year to enjoy the honors of his position. He died July 9th, 1850.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

MILLARD FILLMORE, the successor of General Taylor as President of the United States, was a native of Summer Hill, New York, and was born January 7th, 1800. His educational advantages were of the poorest class; indeed only such as were to be found in the common schools of the country at that early date, and he was sent, while yet a mere boy, to Livingston county, then a new, almost unsettled wilderness, to learn a trade; but attracted the notice of a gentleman who used his influence with a friend to receive the lad into his office to study for the legal profession. In 1827 he was admitted to practice as an attorney, and soon after as Counselor of the Supreme Court. Establishing himself in Buffalo, he secured, by his energy, talents, and strict attention to business, a fine and extensive practice

In 1829 he took his seat in the Assembly, from Erie county, and made himself conspicuous for the energy with which he labored to annul the law granting or enforcing imprisonment for debt, which he considered an inhuman practice, unworthy of our age and of our government. In 1833 he was elected to the National House of Representatives, and was appointed to the position of Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means. He sustained every proposition which he brought forward with such fine ability that the government was relieved in a great measure from its financial embarrassments; indeed, as a financier, he had few, if any equals. In 1848 he was elected Vice-President under General Taylor. Upon the death of General Taylor, he, of course, filled the vacancy in the Presidential chair and selected a cabinet distinguished for its ability, its unswerving integrity and its love for our Union. Few cabinets have given so general and extensive satisfaction as did this. On the expiration of his official term he returned to his home in Buffalo and resumed the practice of law.

He died March 8, 1874, at his home in Buffalo.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

NO brighter constellation of stars ever gathered in any sphere of life than the group of talented and patriotic men who have filled, from time to time, the position of Chief Executive of the United States. True, envy may strive to darken their fair fame, and jealousy magnify or distort errors of judgment; for until the mortal shall put on immortality we shall not be free from human weaknesses. But, taken together or singly, we are proud to compare them with the rulers of any or all nations of the earth. The fourteenth President, Franklin Pierce, was born at Hillsborough, New Hampshire, Nov. 23, 1804, and had every advantage afforded him for a fine education, which, with his active mind he was not slow to avail himself of. He graduated with distinguished honors, and studied law in the office of Judge Woodbury, and afterwards in the law school of Northampton, where he remained two years, finishing his course with Judge Parker, at Amherst. He was slow and methodical—neither brilliant nor rapid in thought or speech, but careful, accurate, pains-taking and studious; and never lost an advantage when once it was gained. He attained a high rank as an advocate.

In 1827 he was elected to represent his native town in the State Legislature, which office he held for four years, during the last two of which he was speaker, and gave the highest satisfaction. In 1846 he was tendered the office of States Attorney, which he declined, and when the Mexican war broke out, he took an active part in raising troops; and, accepting the commission of Brigadier General, entered the army with the New England Regiment of Volunteers, and distinguished himself by his bravery and coolness in several hard-fought battles; particularly at Cerro-Gordo and Chapultepec. In 1852 the Democratic Convention met at Baltimore, and after an almost hopeless disagreement as to a candidate, finally united on Franklin Pierce. He was elected President by an immense majority over General Scott, and was inaugurated March 4, 1857. Upon the expiration of his term, he returned to his home in New Hampshire, where he died October 8th, 1869.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

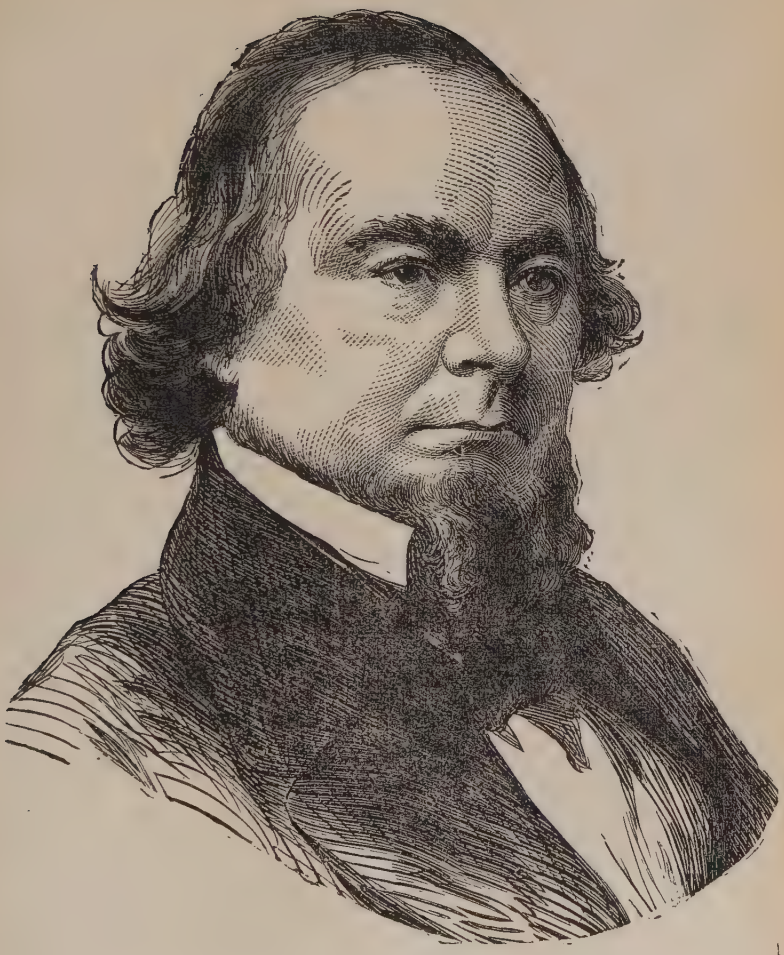
JAMES BUCHANAN.

MR. BUCHANAN was of Irish parentage, born at Stony Batter, Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791. He entered Dickinson College, from which he graduated in two years. He studied law in Lancaster, was admitted to the bar, and soon commanded an extensive practice. In 1814 he was sent to the Pennsylvania State Legislature; in 1820 to Congress, and in 1813 was appointed Minister to Russia by President Jackson, of whom he was a warm personal friend and great admirer. In 1834 he was elected United States Senator, where he held his seat until 1845, when he was appointed Secretary of State in Mr. Polk's cabinet, and held the position until the expiration of Mr. Polk's term, when he retired to private life to recover from the fatigue and over-exertion which he had endured.

When Mr. Pierce was nominated for President, in 1853, Mr. Buchanan was appointed Minister to England. Questions were then pending which required the greatest delicacy and tact, and his course there was so discreet and honorable, so courtly, yet firm, that he was a credit alike to himself and the government he represented; so highly was his conduct appreciated that he was received on his return with the greatest enthusiasm.

In June, 1856, Mr. Buchanan was nominated by the Democratic Convention as a candidate for the Presidency; and although the opposition was strong against him he was elected by a large majority. At the close of his administration, which was a stormy and most unhappy one, when he was called upon to meet mighty issues, he returned to his home in Wheatland, where he died June 1st, 1868.

His position with reference to the rebellion destroyed the popularity he had been a life-time in building up.



ROBERT L. ORR.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

ONE of the few names that are truly worthy to live on the pages of history, and to be handed down to posterity as a beacon light and a guide, is that of Abraham Lincoln. The heart leaps quick to its labor of love, and the pen yields ready and willing obedience to the mind, as it dwells tenderly and lovingly on the brave, strong character of this good man. He lived in a time when it was needed that in connection with rapidity of thought, must be deliberateness of action, and that the steady well balanced brain should be unbiased by sectional or personal prejudice. How well he did his duty; how true he was, not to *party* or State, but to principle and honor; how fully he discharged every obligation in that time that tried men's souls; how earnest was his love for North and South alike, since North and South, East and West formed the Union he had sworn to defend; he proved in the strongest way possible, since he was willing to sacrifice ease and comfort, yea life itself, for his country. He was the sixteenth President of the United States, and was born in Hardin county, Ky., Feb. 12, 1809. His advantages for obtaining an education in his boyhood, were very limited, and he was, in the fullest sense, one of America's self-made men. Nowhere in the world, and to none but the liberty loving children of the New World, can this have so strong a significance, since it speaks eloquently of trial, of self-denial, of struggle, of *victory*. All that he acquired was wrought out by patient study. All that he achieved was by sheer force of will and stubborn determination. While the favored sons of affluence lounged over their books in classic halls, he toiled unweariedly at his by the dim light of a pine torch in the rough home of a pioneer; and when he had reached the goal, strengthened by the race in which every thing was against him, he looked

back to see that they, with both wind and tide in their favor, had given it up.

In 1832 he served in the Blackhawk war, and on his return was elected to the Illinois Legislature. In 1834 he was elected to the Legislature, and re-elected in 1836, '38 and '40. While in that position he gave evidence of the power and ability which made for him a reputation world wide. For many years Mr. Lincoln was a prominent leader of the Whig party in Illinois, and in 1844 he canvassed the entire State for Henry Clay, of whom he was a sincere and enthusiastic admirer, and a warm personal friend, and exerted himself powerfully for the favorite of his party. In 1846 he was elected to Congress, and took his seat in 1847, the only Whig representative of his State—not now a representative of his *party*, but of the *people* who trusted the honor of the man who never betrayed them. Though not a public man so long as many of his cotemporaries, all his acts were in accordance with his profession, and he never swerved from the right, or compromised with wrong. No hope of advancement could tempt that honest soul to stoop to an unworthy deed, and no pleading of the ambition within him could move him to gratify it at the expense of his country.

In November, 1860, he was elected President of the United States by the Republican party, and took his seat on the 4th of March, 1861. For some time clouds had overhung the nation, dense and dark, and at length the threatening storm broke. The Confederates opened the war by firing on Fort Sumter, and seizing it and Charleston harbor. On the 15th of April, President Lincoln issued his first call for seventy-five thousand men for the defence of the government. This was followed by other calls for troops, and during his first administration an army of two million men was brought into the field by successive levies, nearly all of which was volunteer service. Three thousand million of dollars was expended in the maintenance of the government and the support of the army. In 1864 Mr. Lincoln was again nominated, and, at the instance of the border States, Andrew Johnson, then military governor of Tennessee, was substituted for Mr. Hamlin for Vice-President, and after a fiercely contested election, when political excitement ran higher than ever before since our nation had a form and a name, Abraham Lincoln and

Andrew Johnson were elected President and Vice-President of the United States. They were inaugurated March 3d, 1865. For months the rebellion had been waning. The fierceness of the wrath of the contending parties was cooling down; the sacrifice of precious lives had been offered on a thousand hills, and a thousand valleys were furrowed with the graves of those who had fallen in combat, and the hearts of Northern and Southern men yearned for rest, and peace, and reconciliation. The war was virtually brought to a close when General Lee surrendered his forces at Appomatox Court House.

On the evening of April 14th, 1865, President Lincoln was assassinated at Ford's Theatre, by John Wilkes Booth, and died on the morning of the 15th. This tragic event caused great gloom to the nation, and other nations wept in sympathy at the loss of a man so eminent in qualities that had made him beloved wherever his name and character were known. By the death of President Lincoln, Vice-President Johnson succeeded him, and took the oath of office April 15, 1865.

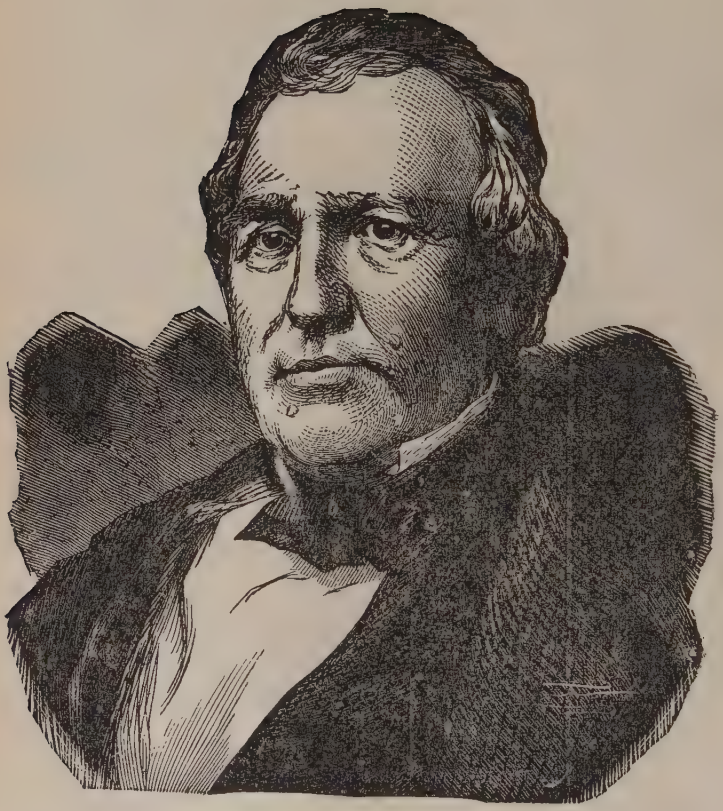
Andrew Johnson.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

THE seventeenth President, was born in Raleigh, North Carolina, and was apprenticed to a tailor when he was ten years of age, with whom he remained until he was seventeen. He never attended school, and deserves the greatest credit for having obtained, unaided, the rudiments of a good common education by studying alone, without assistance from any one. He removed to Greenville, Tennessee, where he was highly respected, and in 1830 was chosen Mayor of that place, and in 1835 was elected to the State Legislature, to the State Senate in 1841 and was sent to Congress in 1843, where he remained but a year, being elected Governor of Tennessee during the term and re-elected in '53. He was chosen United States Senator in 1857 for the term ending 1863, after which he served on the Committee on Public Lands. In his politics he was a Democrat and a strong supporter of Breckinridge and Lane for the Presidential offices; but at the first note of war, his love for the dear old flag asserted itself, and he declared himself in favor of the Union. He was appointed Military Governor of Tennessee by President Lincoln, and was elected Vice-President at the second term of Lincoln. After that sad calamity which shook the hearts, and almost the faith of the nation—a calamity whose sudden darkening gave them not a moment of warning, but left them bereaved and desolate, Mr. Johnson was made President; the war was virtually ended and the work of reconstructing the broken and shattered Union was begun. But the work of calling order out of chaos in the creation seemed a much more hopeful affair. The reduction of the military and naval forces was a subject of endless differences between himself and his cabinet, and his views differed also from a majority of those in Congress, causing constant unpleasant and noisy scenes during his administration In the win-

ter of 1868 articles of impeachment were drawn up against him, passed the House of Representatives, and being submitted to the Senate, that body became at once a committee of impeachment. The President was tried on these articles, but the failure of the committee to vote on the last seven articles, having been brought about by persons or parties who desired to save his reputation, the matter was indefinitely postponed. But the differences between himself and Congress continued and increased, becoming a source of endless bitterness and trouble; and at the end of his official term he retired to his home in Tennessee, welcoming peace and rest as joyfully as the storm-beaten dove welcomed the shelter of the ark when the waters covered the face of the earth and she had not where to rest her foot.

After a few years of rest from political affairs, Mr. Johnson was elected United States Senator from Tennessee in 1874. He died suddenly at his home, on the 31st of July, 1875.



GEN. SAM HOUSTON.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.

EIGHTEENTH President of the United States, the "Hero of a hundred battles," was born at Pleasant Point, Ohio, 23d of April, 1822. It is not satisfactorily proven that his ancestors came across the briny deep in the May Flower, but they most likely did in some other staunch ship, since they were among the first settlers in Massachusetts Bay, in the early part of the seventeenth century. The youth of Ulysses was spent at his native place, and he received a good English education at Georgetown, in Brown county. In 1839, being then seventeen years of age, he was admitted to the Military Academy at West Point, as a cadet, and graduated on the 30th of June, 1843, standing No. 21 in a class of 39. He is not spoken of as a young man of bright talents or brilliant promise, but that he acquired all he learned through hard work and close study. In July, 1843, he entered the army as brevet second lieutenant of infantry, and was attached to the fourth regiment. He served in the Mexican War, first under Taylor, then under Scott, and was a faithful soldier. He was promoted to first lieutenant, then to brevet captain, and in 1857 a full commission of captain, dating back to 1853. In July, 1854, Mr. Grant resigned his commission, engaged for a while in commercial pursuits, and afterwards removed to Galena, Illinois. When the Rebellion broke out his pulses stirred, and his eye lit up with martial fire as his ear caught the sound of bugle and drum, and the call of his country appealed to him as does the cry of a suffering child to its mother. He was at once appointed on the Governor's staff as mustering officer of volunteers; but this was two tame a position for him then, for he had tasted the excitement of battle, and longed for it as impatiently as a war horse prances beneath the restraints of his master.

His first command was Colonel of the 21st Regiment, Illinois Volunteers, and his commission dated June 15, 1861. The fol-

lowing August he was appointed Brigadier General of United States Volunteers, with rank and commission dating back to May, 1861. During the campaign in Tennessee he distinguished himself by his valiant conduct, and after the surrender of Fort Donnelson, he was raised to the rank of Major General of Volunteers. Upon the capture of Vicksburg, he was made a Brigadier, and soon after Major General in the regular army.

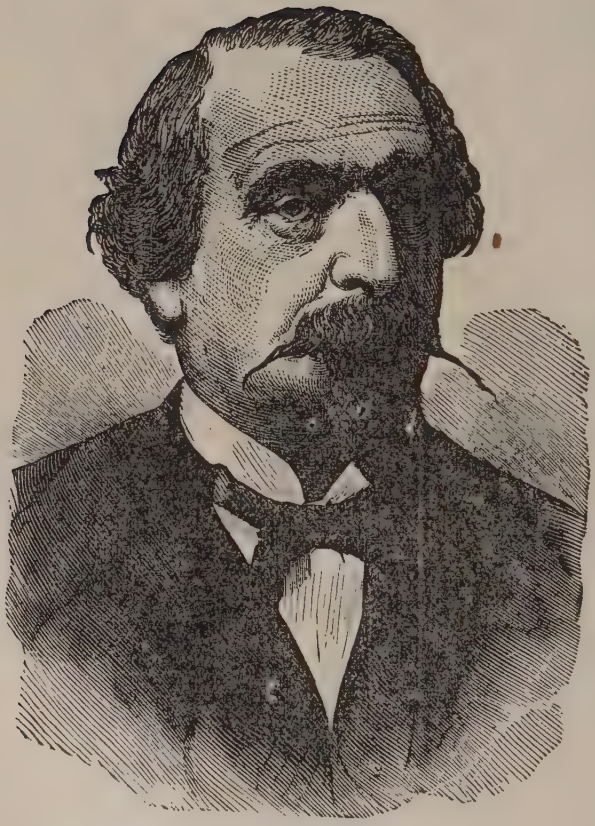
His fine executive talents, his many and rapid victories, and the general success which attended his plans, naturally suggested him as the proper person for Commander-in-Chief of the Federal army. In accordance with the expressed wish of the Executive, he repaired to Washington, and received his commission from President Lincoln's own hand; assumed the command of the armies on the 10th of March, and was away to the tented field, where, at the head of his legions he received the sword which Lee surrendered, and with it the main body of the Southern army. He was nominated for the Presidency at the Chicago Convention in May, 1868, and triumphantly elected—receiving a magnificent majority. He conducted the affairs of government so acceptably to the country that at the close of his first term he was nominated for a second, and re-elected Nov. 5th, 1872.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MEN.

LOUIS NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

THE French people have loved and reverenced the name of Napoleon; because it was inseparably connected with the palmy days of the empire, and they yielded to the name the homage which they never would have given to Napoleon III. At the best he was an usurper and a robber; at the worst, he was not only an usurper and robber, but a degraded man, whose depraved nature was a hot bed in whose nursing care every vice, both native and exotic, had flourished and grown rank and strong. If he had one redeeming trait of character, the world is not clear-sighted enough, or sufficiently charitable, to look for it, and it is not prominent enough to be like a light that is set on a hill and can not be hid. If the career of the Napoleonic dynasty is without parallel it certainly owes but little of its glory to Napoleon III.

Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte is the son of Louis Napoleon, King of Holland, and Hortense, daughter of the Empress Josephine, by her first marriage, with the Viscount de Beauharnois. He resided with his mother in Paris, until 1814. When the first great disaster of Napoleon occurred after the Russian expedition, when defeat and disgrace had overwhelmed him, Hortense, with a faith as strong as was his own in the star of his destiny, watched and waited for his return, and when the glad day came, exulted in the brilliant success that rewarded the hero



NAPOLEON III.

of a hundred battles. Again the clouds darkened over France —again her blue lilies were drenched with the life-blood of her bravest sons—again the wild storm burst over that devoted land, and on the ensanguined plain of Waterloo, the star of Napoleon I. set to rise no more.

Under the rule of the Bourbons France drooped and languished, praying, in stealthy ways, for deliverance from the accursed yoke of a race it hated. The revolution of 1830 in France rekindled the fierce flames of discontent in Italy, and for the first time in his life we find Louis Napoleon, whom the jealous watchfulness of Louis Philippe prevented from taking an active part in the politics of his country, turning his attention to that distracted province, and as he became an object of attention to the progressive party, he became, in an even greater measure, an object of dread and suspicion to the Papal government, and was ordered to withdraw from Rome. The request, pointed and significant, was not complied with. A guard was then sent to remove him, but he eluded them and fled to Florence; and the insurrection of the Romagna so long suppressed, burst forth, and the tri-colored flags waved defiance from the battlement of every stronghold in Italy; but the fingers of the Austrian despot were upon her throat, and the fierce and beautiful, but weak and helpless, queen of the Old World lay disarmed and powerless at his feet.

It was not until 1832 that the eyes of Europe were centered upon Louis Napoleon as the probable head of the Napoleonic dynasty, and Louis Philippe, under the restless motion of the people whom he lacked the power to control, trembled as he read the hand-writing upon his palace walls, and knew that his kingdom was passing into other hands. The far-seeing wisdom and shrewd foresight of the "coming man," convinced him that the French must have not only a change of power, but a change of government, and though every nerve leaped and thrilled at the lightest thought of the old glory of France, he foresaw that a throne was a thing of the past, and that too much of the wild, free air of America had fluttered over the briny deep, and that the passionate hearts of the people whom he aspired to lead, must at least be humored in the idea that they might establish a republic as fair and strong as our own. He circulated pamphlets amongst the laboring classes, in which he talked of the "rights of

the people," of course, in a guarded way, he talked to them of freedom and of national existence that should be untrammeled by tyranny, of a day when no despot's foot should be upon their neck, and they believed him, and longed for the coming of the day he had pictured to their imagination. Thus far his life had been without political reproach, and without shame, and no imprudence had shaken the faith of the people in his ability or his honesty. The reasonable and honorable had predominated.

The state of France at this time was peculiar, and the irrepressible turbulence, and the disappointment which they felt in Louis Philippe, whose selfishness, avarice and perfidy merited their contempt, presented a temptation which a stronger mind than Napoleon might have yielded to. Every attempt which the reigning monarch took to render himself popular seemed to act against him, and the conspiracy of Strasbourg was to him as a funeral knell. Though it was a failure, and Napoleon a prisoner, he knew that the days of his reign were numbered; although, when he had banished the aspiring young prince from the soil of France, and pronounced a sentence of perpetual exile, no doubt he breathed more freely; and when an ocean rolled between him and the rival he feared and hated, he hoped against hope for the perpetuation of his own reign. His arrival in New York is still well remembered, and while it is asserted that his life became that of an abandoned debauchee, that he was overwhelmed with want, that he was arrested for debt, and that he acted in every manner unworthy of his name, his rank and his hopes, it is probable that these stories are highly exaggerated, or untrue in the main. He was recalled from America by a letter from his mother, who was lying in a very critical condition, and braving the wrath, and defying the hatred of Louis Philippe, he embarked for Europe, and reached Arnumburg in time to render the last offices of affection to his dying mother. After her death he resided for some time in London, and was, at more than one period of his life there, so impoverished as to be dependent upon his mistress, the beautiful and fascinating Mrs. Howard. His destitution, his misfortunes, and the glory which attached to his name, attracted her to this penniless aspirant to the throne of the Bourbons. But though he lived in forced exile—enduring it because he could not avoid it—his busy brain still toiled and wrought away at the tan-

gled knot of destiny; and though the thread led out into darkness, he believed it was to lead him to honor, or at least to glory. But alas, at Boulogne he again suffered the defeat which his rash, immature plans seemed only to court; and again he was a prisoner.

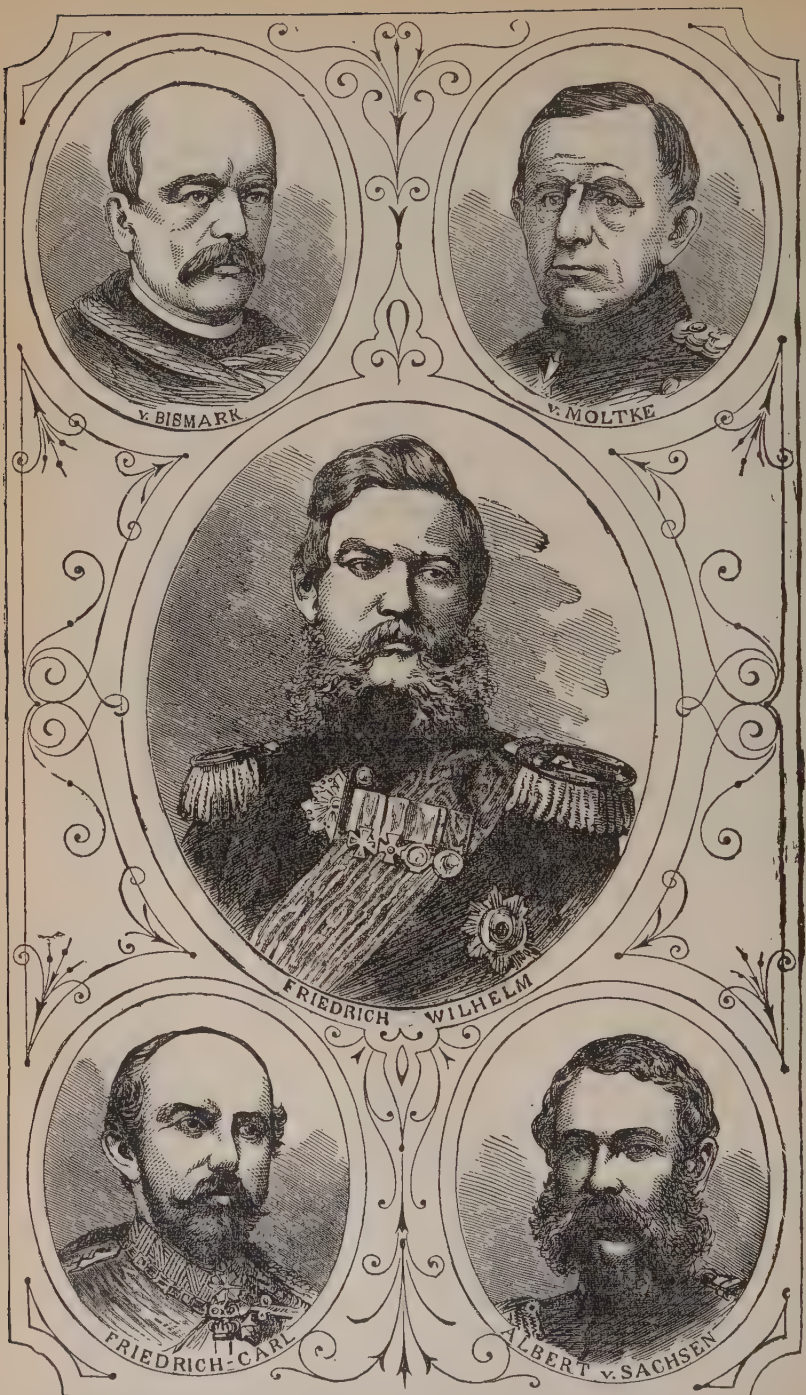
Arraigned for trial before the Chamber of Peers, he was convicted upon the evidence of his own proclamations to the people, as well as the fact of his having been taken while fighting against the Crown. He was condemned to imprisonment for life in the fortress of Ham. For six long years he was kept in close confinement, and at last, when the vigilance of the guard was somewhat relaxed, found means of escape through the adroit and faithful management of his physician, Dr. Conneau; and he again found an asylum in London. He seemed now to believe that the downfall of Louis Philippe would soon take place, and he believed rightly. He founded his opinion upon the observation that the ruling powers had held the throne but sixteen or seventeen years. Seventeen years Napoleon I. reigned. Seventeen years the restored Bourbons were in supremacy. Seventeen years Louis Philippe occupied the throne; and, predicted Schmucker, we may safely prophesy that seventeen years will be about the time allotted by the hand of destiny for the reign of the restored Bounapartes. Maddened by wrong and oppression, and hating bitterly the man who ruled them, the people at length forced Louis Philippe to abdicate the throne, and declared they would have a republican form of government. Accordingly, upon the 10th of December, 1848, an election was held which resulted in Napoleon's being proclaimed President of the French Republic, for the term of four years.

At last, after weary years waiting and hoping, he stood at the head of the French government, and if his position was not what he had fondly hoped and aspired to—if it was but as Dead Sea apples, where he had looked for Pomegranates—or a stone where he had asked for bread—or Marah water to thirst that longed to quench itself in the free, sweet mountain springs—at least it was something, and he could bide his time, and await the moment when he could spring into the position he craved. For four years he never lost sight of this for one instant, and at the end of that time was elected for ten years. We use the term "elected," but

it was carried at the bayonet's point, and Paris was guarded with a hundred thousand armed soldiers, who had been rendered savage with brandy. There were true hearts there in the doomed city, who had determined to give their lives before they would relinquish their liberties. There was a sharp conflict of a few hours; Napoleon's minions were triumphant and the Parisians yielded to the power they were helpless to withstand. At the end of a week tranquility was restored, and order again reigned throughout France; the Assembly was obliterated, and Louis Napoleon had realized the darling, life-long aspirations of his heart; the dying prayer of Hortense was fulfilled, and at length her son, the heir of the Great Napoleon, was absolute Monarch of France. When he was elevated to the imperial throne, he dispatched to the Emperor Nicholas, in common with the other sovereigns of Europe, a messenger, informing him of his new dignity. Nicholas returned, after an insulting delay, an answer so cold, so ambiguous, and so destitute of all courtesy—even the hollow and worthless courtesy which usually characterizes the intercourse of sovereigns not actually engaged in war,—that Louis Napoleon was compelled to resent it. He was not in a position to grapple with the Russian Bear, but I have said before that his was one of those natures who bide their time, and know the moment when it is safe to strike; and that moment did not come to him until, allied with England, he dictated, with his hereditary enemy, terms to Russia. Sevastopol fell, after a siege of twelve months, and a hundred thousand men had fallen around and within her walls; and there, France and her hated ally, dictated terms to the haughty and imperious Czar, who had no choice but to accept them. It was the proudest day in Napoleon's life,—before its triumph the glory of his coronation day dwindled into insignificance, since he not only humbled Russia, but England was forced to meet as an equal a monarch whom she looked upon, as did the rest of the world, as an upstart and an usurper.

The years rolled on; Napoleon waxed mighty, in his own conceit, at least, and wearying of inactivity, and sighing for fresh conquests, he bethought him to add to the luster of a somewhat unenviable reputation, by subduing his ancient enemy, Prussia. The war has been denounced as wanton and unprovoked, and no doubt was so, with but one motive which can be urged. Apart

from his passion for the perpetuation of his dynasty, he had, of course, some feeling for France, as one of the great powers of Europe. The position of Prussia, so late her inferior, now menaced her with humiliation. There was no choice for France; she must relinquish her prestige to a nation she despised, even while she feared it, or she must subdue it before it had grown too proud and strong to be subdued. Having decided upon war, nothing but a pretext was wanting, and this was easily found in the refusal of the King of Prussia to prohibit, absolutely, the candidature of the Prince Leopold, or of any other Prussian prince, then or ever, for the throne of Spain. The indignant refusal of Prussia, who was in a better position to dictate terms than was France, was seized upon. Such was the insignificant origin of a war which cost the nations a quarter of a million lives, and France alone the enormous sum of $2,500,000,000. Her capital is in ruins,—her high places were laid waste—her villages were depopulated, and the country impoverished. At Sedan came the last fell blow which covered him with defeat and disgrace, and accomplished the overthrow of the Napoleonic dynasty; and there, in the evening of that bleak, dark day, September 1, 1870, Napoleon surrendered his sword, his army and himself into the hands of the Emperor Wilhelm. Paris was beseiged and surrendered to the Germans, Napoleon was declared deposed, and a republic was again set up in France. The late emperor retired to England, where he died, January 9th, 1873.



Leaders of the German Armies, in the French and German War

BISMARK.

SINCE 1862, Count Karl Otto von Bismarck-Schonhausen has really stood at the head of the Prussian nation. His spirit has been felt in peace and war, and his counsels have chiefly controlled King William. This stern, hard, positive old man is so fully under the control of Von Bismark as to be moulded into an altogether different being; yet he appears to be wholly unconscious of the fact, and complacently gives the orders that are the suggestions of Bismark, securing, at last, the love and respect of those who, a few years ago, were bitterly hostile to every measure he advanced or advocated. The man who could accomplish such results, and, while preserving peace between the King and the people, lead both forward in harmony to a higher position, deserves the credit of being one of, if not *the* first statesman in Europe.

Bismark was born at Schonhausen, in the province of Saxony, April 1, 1814. His family belonged to the ancient nobility, and had long served the Saxon and Prussian rulers. He was educated for the legal profession, but entered the army soon after obtaining his degree of Doctor of Philosophy, serving first in the light infantry, and afterwards as an officer of the reserves. He did not enter upon public life, or take any part in politics until he was thirty years of age, when he was elected to the Diet of Saxony, and afterwards to the United Diet, in 1847. In the latter he soon became leader of the conservative party, and distinguished himself for eloquence and logical ability. He opposed the adoption of the constitution which was offered to Prussia, fought furiously against the prevailing democracy of the period, and it is said declared vehemently that the great cities of Europe ought to be razed to the ground because they were hot-beds of democracy and constitutionalism. Since that time he has grown wiser, and looks to a constitutional form of government as something which might, under some circumstances be warranted. His course at the Diet attracted the attention of King Frederick William IV., and in 1851 he assigned him the difficult and important post of Privy Counselor to the Prussian Embassy at Frankfort. In this position he laid down the principle that Prussia could not fulfill her mission to Germany until Austria should be driven from the

confederation. In 1852 he was sent on a special mission to Vienna, and there as at Frankfort showed himself the vigilant and untiring adversary of Count Rochberg, the Austrian Premier. A pamphlet, written with great ability, appeared in 1858, entitled "Prussia on the Italian Question," and was very generally attributed to him—no doubt with truth—for he never lost an opportunity to wield tongue or pen in behalf of what he believed to be the best interests of his government. In 1856 he was minister to St. Petersburg, and in 1860 he visited Paris. In May, 1862, he was transferred by the present King to the French Embassy, but remained in Paris only till September, when he was summoned to Berlin as premier of the new Cabinet, with the double duty of governor of the King's household and Minister of Foreign Affairs. He had already attained high distinction as a diplomatist and a parliamentarian, but his new position was one requiring greater talents, and those of a higher order than any yet displayed, and he soon proved himself quite equal to the emergency. He inherited from the Ministry a chronic quarrel with the House of Deputies of the Prussian Legislature. The King and his cabinet had deemed it indispensable to reorganize the army, and substitute for the militia a system of military training which would make every able-bodied man in the realm an educated soldier, owing and giving to the nation three years of military service ; forming a reserve force liable to be called upon in actual war. Connected with this were changes, promoting greater efficiency amongst the officers, and making the nation a nation of soldiers—every man an adept in the use of arms. The necessity of this grew out of the position of Prussia in relation to Germany. Either she, a nearly pure German power, or Austria, whose population was mostly made up of non-German nationalities, must lead Germany. If Prussia was to take this place she must be prepared for it; if she yielded the position that was rightfully her own—if she accepted at the hands of Austria the humiliating alternative of war, she must do it in silence and forever after hold her peace. In that case she sank to a second-rate power, and might never hope to rise, at least without war—war it might be—probably must be—if she sustained herself, since Austria would not relinquish her position without fighting. And Prussia must be prepared for it, since she would have to contend with superior power, so far as

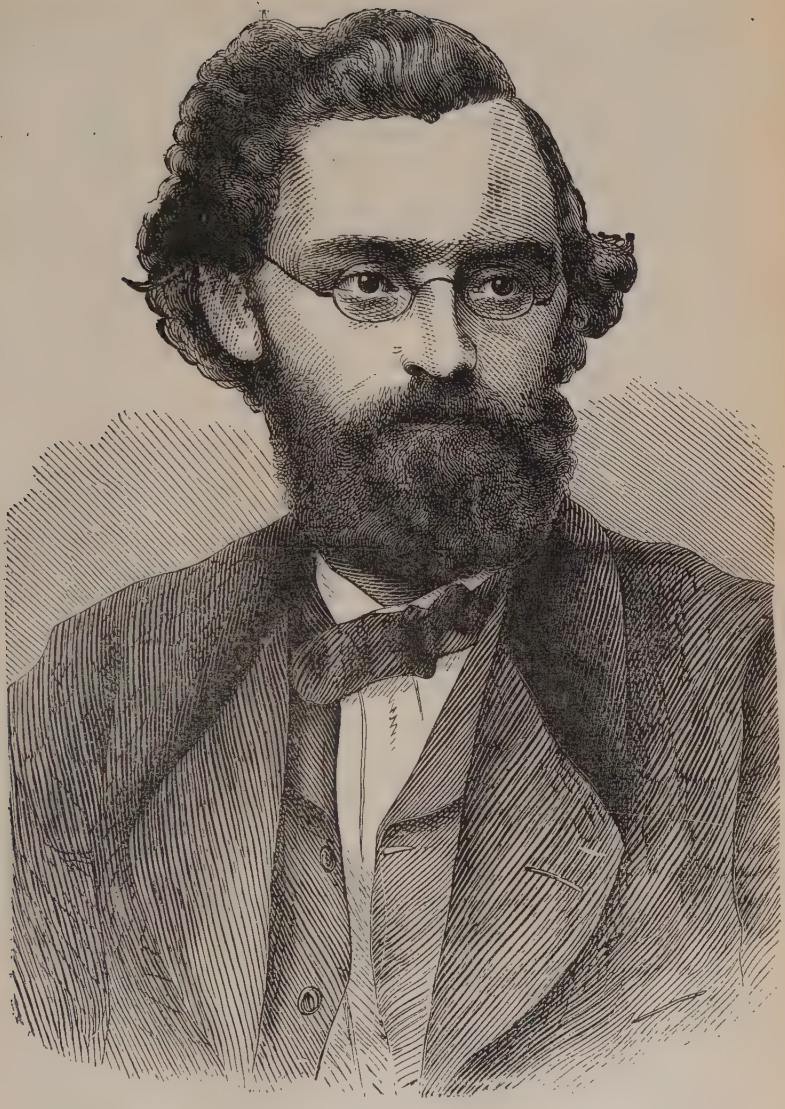
numbers and resources were concerned, yet to give any hint to the world of her object was to court defeat. The King, therefore, under Bismark's advice, though himself opposed to a war with Austria for any cause, went forward and reorganized the army, expending large sums of money and doing the work thoroughly, and then calling upon the Diet for an appropriation to meet it. This was persistently refused, and when the House of Nobles voted it the Diet impeached the action as illegal, and long and bitter was the struggle between the two Houses; but when the crisis came, and Prussia, having formed an alliance with Italy, declared war with Austria, and defeated her in seven weeks, the wisdom of Bismark's course was obvious, and those who had denounced him most unreservedly were then willing to acknowledge their obligations to him. The German Confederacy was reorganized with Prussia at its head, and all the German States, except Austria, bound by treaties either offensive or defensive; and it was to the wisdom and prudence of the Prime Minister that this was due. Gifted with a remarkable insight into the motives of men, and especially of monarchs and political leaders, Count von Bismark has measured his strength with the ablest diplomatists in Europe, but has never met his equal; indeed, we do not believe that for far-seeing judgment, for concentration and strength of purpose, for rare discrimination, and cool, calm, reasoning powers, there is a living statesman in Europe who is his peer. He was aware, after the battle of Sadowa, that Napoleon would make a war between France and Prussia as soon as he could find a pretext for doing it, and he foresaw, better than any one else did, what the pretext would be. While carefully avoiding any provocation, he was urging on, with quiet force, every means to be ready to meet it, and when Napoleon declared war, Prussia was ready to meet it, but France was not. Proud, haughty and imperious, depending too much upon the glory of the Napoleonic Dynasty to intimidate the world, or, perhaps, he really believed the arms of France were invincible, yet he has had abundant opportunity, in his forced seclusion, to meditate upon the fallacy of measuring swords with a man like Bismark. In person the Count is a portly but intellectual looking man, with a quick, nervous manner, partly the result of ill-health, yet with an air of great self-command, while his keen, brilliant eyes have a

most pleasing expression. He is a fine scholar, thoroughly acquainted with most of the languages of Europe, speaking them fluently. His herculean labors within the last five years have permanently impaired his health, and it is not likely he will ever regain it. While Germany is a nation, and while her people glory in the triumph of her cause, they will never forget how much is due to Bismarck's diplomatic and parliamentary powers for their reorganization and safe establishment as an independent and honorable kingdom, and the first power in Europe.

CARL SCHURZ.

IN 1848, when the present formidable German Empire was divided into some thirty-seven duchies, principalities and other monarchial governments, which drained the substance from the people that held them in bonds of almost penal servitude, a few brave men called the masses to arms, and sought to establish a great republic. Among the prominent agitators of the movement was Carl Schurz, now Senator from Missouri. It is but a matter of history that the uprising was unsuccessful, and a large number of the leaders were executed, others imprisoned, and many banished. Among the latter was Carl Schurz. Upon taking his forced departure, he exclaimed: "To-day I leave you, an exile; but I shall return, and when I do you shall respect me as much as you now despise me!" and if any man had the power to make good the words that to the old world despots were both a threat and a prophesy, it is he who flung them back as a parting *souvenir* to a power he hated.

Physically he is tall, sinewy and lean. His physiognomy is pure Teutonic. A fair forehead, under dark-brown, carelessly-combed hair, sallow cheeks; a sharply-cut nose, and deep indentations above flaring nostrils; a reddish moustache and a reddish



CARL SCHURZ.

beard, pretty closely trimmed; a strong jaw, lips that can smile sweetly or curl into a sneer like Mephistopheles' own, and eyes singularly expressive and piercing: these are the features of Carl Schurz. Between 11 and 12 every forenoon he walks up the avenue to the capitol with a heavy overcoat wrapped around him, his left hand holding the folds together over his chest, and his right hand swinging a Malacca cane.

In the Senate, divested of his overcoat his figure appears the more lithe and slender. His movements are in striking contrast with the slow, formal, and studied movements of many of the elder Senators, being full of nervous vivacity and grace. His manner is courtesy itself. Generally, his first business after taking his seat appears to be the wiping of his spectacles with a spotless handkerchief. By the time this little thing is done, the Senator has in a series of swift glances surveyed the Chamber, galleries and all; and many are the imperceptible signs of personal recognition which flash from his keen eyes. In the time of debate he is a careful listener. He never insults an adversary while that adversary is speaking by a mean pretense of being engaged in letter-writing or the examination of papers; on the contrary, it seems natural to Senator Schurz to preserve the demeanor of a gentleman toward all his associates at all times. This politeness on his part doubtless has its influence, in conjunction with the fascination of his abilities, to secure for him, whenever he arises to address the Senate, an attentive audience on the floor. He is always charged with something to say on every important question; but he has the sense and tact to reserve himself for occasions when his voice and influence could not well be spared. He is never trivial; never makes much of small topics. Therefore when Carl Schurz gets on his feet, there is generally a reason for it, and he does not often sit down without vindicating some principle worthy of such an advocate.

In an important debate fitted to call into exercise all his powers, he makes a magnificent figure. His firm yet elastic posture; his gestures, commanding, graceful, vehement; his voice, now ringing loud, now subdued to impressive monotones; his irresistible German accent; the close reasoning, cumulative logic, sarcasm and eloquence of his speech; its fine, nervous English; and above and beyond all, the manly earnestness and fervor with which he is

evidently defending a principle dear to his heart, make him a great orator. * * * What is chiefly edifying to a student of the current debates is the dominion of such a mind as his over the bombast, the quibbles, the stump oratory, and the rickety logic of Senatorial quacks. It suggests the poise of an eagle in the "blue serene" above a flock of clacking wild geese.

The lovable side of Carl Schurz's character is, the sociable and domestic side. He has a noble wife and one child, and a quiet home in Washington. There, on Saturday evenings, his friends are entertained with conversation and music. There is certainly no difficulty in conversing with the Senator, because he talks fluently in three languages, and we don't know how many more. He has a true German fondness for music, and is said to be a fine amateur pianist.

LYMAN TRUMBULL.

IN speaking of this man, no introduction is needed. His name is familiar to every voter, his speeches have been read at every fireside, and his acts have been before the public for many years. He was born in Colchester, Conn., in 1813. In his sixteenth year he became a teacher in his native town, and upon reaching his majority went to Georgia, where he was engaged in teaching for several years, devoting all his spare time to the study of law, and was admitted to the bar while he was still a resident of that State.

In 1837 he removed to Illinois, and in 1840 represented St. Clair county in the State Legislature; and in 1841 was made Secretary of the State of Illinois. In 1848 he was elected one of the Chief Justices of the State Supreme Court, an office which he held for thirteen years. In 1855 the Legislature elected him to

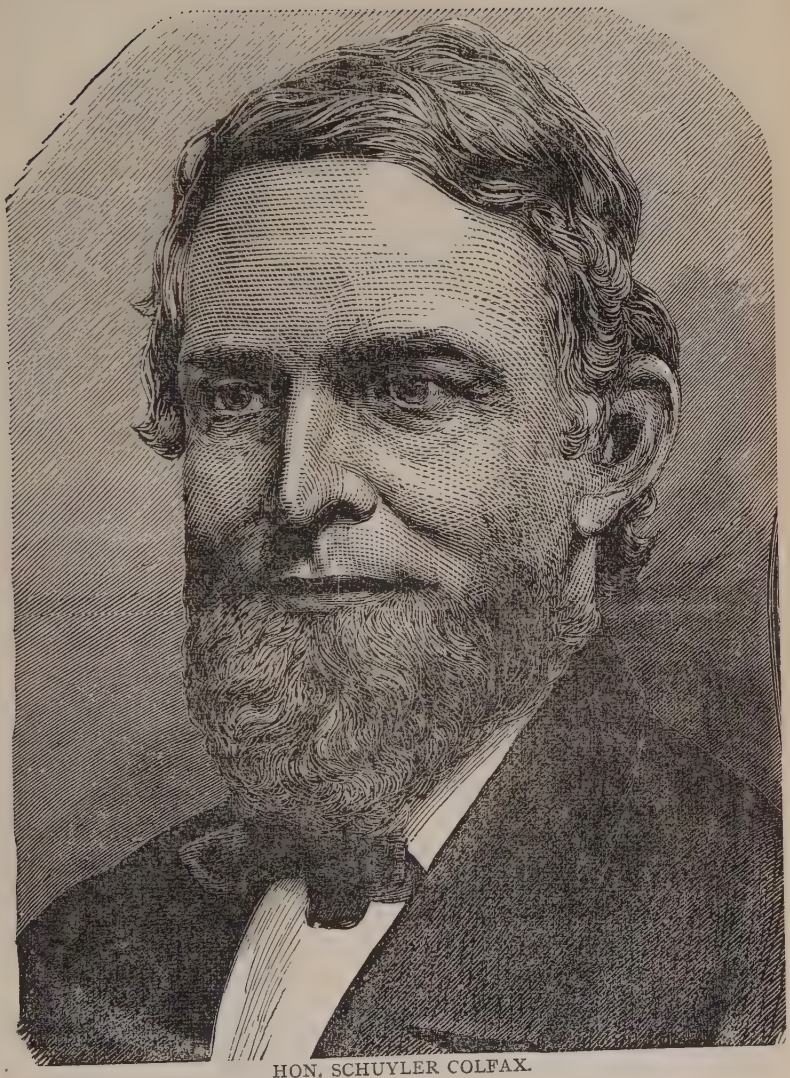
the Senate of the United States, and in 1861–67 he was re-elected.

In connection with other leading men, and in accordance with the known wishes of the people, he advocated earnestly the nomination of President Lincoln, both for his first and second terms of office.

Senator Trumbull is one of our *strong* men. He is eminently practical, and very firm; while rarely, if ever, acting upon impulse, he rarely, if ever, changes an opinion. He is an earnest, thoughtful, conscientious man, not one of those, perhaps, to whom our hearts go out involuntarily with their freight and offering of love, but one of those whom we honor and trust, and to whom we could safely commit the keeping of our national honor.

SCHUYLER COLFAX.

HON. SCHUYLER COLFAX was born in the city of New York, March 23, 1823. He early learned to depend upon himself, and prepare to meet life's stern realities, and to breast the tide of human affairs with what strength and forces were at his command. His father died before his babe was born, leaving the young widow with exceedingly limited resources When he was ten years old, Schuyler went into a store, where he remained three years, and then, with his mother and stepfather, removed to the West, and settled in Indiana, where he again found employment as a dry goods clerk, for four years more. He must have given promise already of ability, for before he was eighteen he was appointed deputy auditor, and moved to South Bend. He possessed some literary taste, and wrote fluently and correctly, and attracted some attention by articles in the country papers of the day. In 1845 he began the publication of the St. Joseph Valley Register. His speculation seems not to have been immediately successful, for it is said that the young editor found



HON. SCHUYLER COLFAX.

himself deeply in debt—almost any one but him would have said, hopelessly so—and when, by the closest attention to business, he had placed his paper on a safe footing, he had the misfortune to lose his office by fire. Having no insurance on it, of course the loss was total. It is pleasant to be able to say that the courage of the young man was equal to the emergency, and that his energy made it a popular and profitable paper.

The beginning of his political career was his appointment as delegate and secretary to the Whig National Convention. In 1849 he was a member of the Convention to revise the Constitution of Indiana. In 1851 he received his first nomination to Congress, but lost the election. In 1855 he was re-nominated, and elected by a majority of two thousand; and has been returned to each succeeding Congress. He approved of the nomination of Mr. Lincoln, as one of the best and safest measures of the period, warmly seconded every effort for the election, and during his entire administration was a wise and faithful friend, a discreet and judicious counselor. He was Speaker of the House of Representatives during the sessions of the Thirty-eighth Congress, and subsequently twice filled the office. The National Republican Convention which met in Chicago in May, 1868, nominated Mr. Colfax for the Vice-Presidency under Grant; and the measure gave great satisfaction to the people. Mr. Colfax had for many years been a widower, having been married while very young to a sweet, frail girl, who drooped and faded and died, as the blossoms die when wild rude winds sweep round them. A few days after his nomination to the office of Vice President, he was married to Miss Ella M. Wade, a niece of Hon. B. F. Wade, of Ohio, a most amiable and accomplished woman. Mr. Colfax is a man whose many virtues, pleasing manners and address have made him popular, while his firm adherence to principle has won him the respect of the nation.

CHARLES SUMNER.

FOR forty years the name of Charles Sumner has been before the American people, and for more than thirty years he has been a leading statesman. His ancestors for several generations had been legal men—indeed, one may safely say that it is a family trait to incline to the profession of the law.

Charles Sumner was born in Boston, January 6th, 1811; graduated from Harvard College in 1830 and was admitted to the bar in 1836. In 1837 he visited Europe and spent three years on the Continent, when he returned to America and resumed the practice of law in Boston. Mr. Sumner, though not at this time an active politician, was claimed by the Whigs as belonging to their party, and most likely he did. He strongly opposed the Mexican War, and wrote a letter to Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, who then was the Member of Congress from Boston, filled with the most scathing rebuke, for having voted in favor of that war in direct

contradiction to the known wishes of his constituents. When Mr. Webster was withdrawn from the Senate by Mr. Fillmore to a place in his cabinet, Charles Sumner was chosen to fill the vacancy, and, already ahead of all parties on some of the great questions of the day, he now took a more decided stand. He dissolved his connection with the Whigs, broke with a firm hand all old political ties that bound him, and became a leader in the new Free Soil party. Mr. Sumner's public life has been so prominent that it is well known. Upon the Missouri Compromise and Kansas Bill he was particularly earnest and enthusiastic, determined to do all in his power to hand down to posterity laws that should not disgrace America. His speech which was published under the title of "The Crime Against Kansas," occupied two entire days in its delivery. It created intense excitement and indignation amongst those who were opposed to his views, and arguments which could not be defeated by words were met by blows. Preston S. Brooks, a Representative from South Carolina, attacked Mr. Sumner two days afterwards, while he sat at his desk unarmed, engaged in writing, and beat him over his head with a heavy cane until he fell insensible. In the following January, while still suffering from his injuries, he was re-elected to Congress, but his health was so poor, and his suffering so great, that he went to Europe by the advice of his physician, to see if he might not be benefited by change of air. Still very feeble, he returned in the fall, but the next May again went abroad to submit to a course of medical treatment which had the desired effect, and after an absence of eighteen months he again resumed his official duties.

Mr. Sumner took an active part in the election of Mr. Lincoln to the presidential chair, and considered the triumph not one of party but of principle. In 1861, he was made Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, and at that time the position was one requiring the greatest discretion as well as delicacy. He entered his third senatorial term in March, 1863. He was deeply pained by President Johnson's course; indeed, so widely different were their views it was impossible to reconcile them, and from the first to the last he was a bitter and constant opponent of "*My Policy.*" Mr. Sumner died, March 11th, 1874, at Washington.

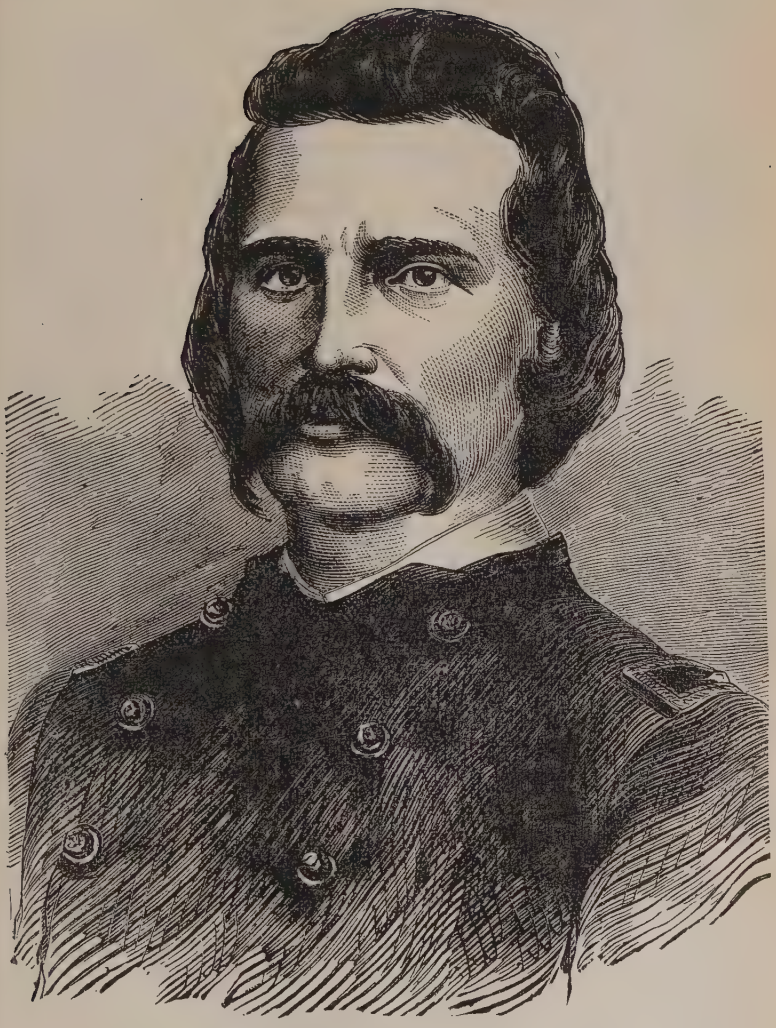
JOHN W. CHANLER.

JOHN WINTHROP CHANLER was born in the city of New York, in 1826. He graduated in Columbia College in 1847, and, like most of our political men, made law the profession of his choice. In 1859 he was a member of the New York State Assembly and gave the greatest satisfaction, as well as high promise for the future. In 1860 he declined the nomination which was tendered him for the State Senate. For two years we hear little of him, but that he practiced his profession with great success, and was popular as a lawyer; but evidently the desire of the people was toward him, for he was elected to the Thirty-eighth Congress, and again to the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth. Perhaps Mr. Chanler has never done anything in all his public life by which he distinguished himself so much as by his powerful speech in answer to Thaddeus Stevens, in reply to his Confiscation Bill. We wish it were possible to give it here—eloquent, impetuous, strong and overflowing with unmeasured indignation and fiery denunciation of a measure which he considered and characterized as the basest robbery. We pass no criticism upon the principle he advocated; we leave that to each reader, supposing him competent to form his own opinion, and only ask him to remember that it was at a time when party strife and bitterness ran high, and when it was necessary to set aside the courtesy and dainty politeness demanded and tendered on ordinary occasions and act quickly and decisively. We doubt if ever a senator delivered a more powerful speech upon any subject. His speech upon the rights of American citizens abroad is also spoken of as one of his best efforts, and one in which are some fine ideas most ably expressed. In looking at his life, and at his abilities, we prophesy for him a greater work than he has yet done.

JOHN A. LOGAN.

JOHN A. LOGAN was born in Illinois in 1826. His father, one of the first settlers of the Prairie State, was born in Ireland. His mother was from the State of Tennessee, and is spoken of as a lovely woman; and it is from this daughter of the South that he inherits his warm, glowing temperament and his impulsive disposition. His father was a man of fine talents, and a good scholar. In those days school houses were not by any means as plenty as now, so he took the education of his boy into his own hands, and I have never heard but that he did credit to his teacher. As had been foreseen and prophesied by prominent statesmen and prophetic lookers-on, the Mexican war followed the annexation of Texas; the call for volunteers rang through the land, and bright swords leaped from the scabbard at the touch of willing hands, as from the North and the South her ruddy sons went out to defend the dear old flag. With the foremost of these young Logan marched to the fray, and on those distant western battle-fields won his first laurels. From that day to this no year has passed but fresh leaves have been added, of deeper, more fadeless green.

At the first he was chosen lieutenant in a company of the first Illinois volunteers, and the records of that war contain evidence that he was a good and faithful soldier. In the fall of 1848, having returned home, he commenced the study of law, and in November, 1841, was elected clerk of Jackson county. He was admitted to the bar in 1851, and commenced practice with his uncle, A. M. Jenkins, Esq., who had once been Lieutenant-Governor of Illinois, and in 1852 he was elected prosecuting attorney of the third judicial district. In the autumn of the same year he was elected to the State legislature, and was three times re-elected. In 1856 he was chosen presidential elector, and was the successful democratic candidate for representative in Congress, being re-elected by the same party in 1860. He was one of the



JOHN A. LOGAN.

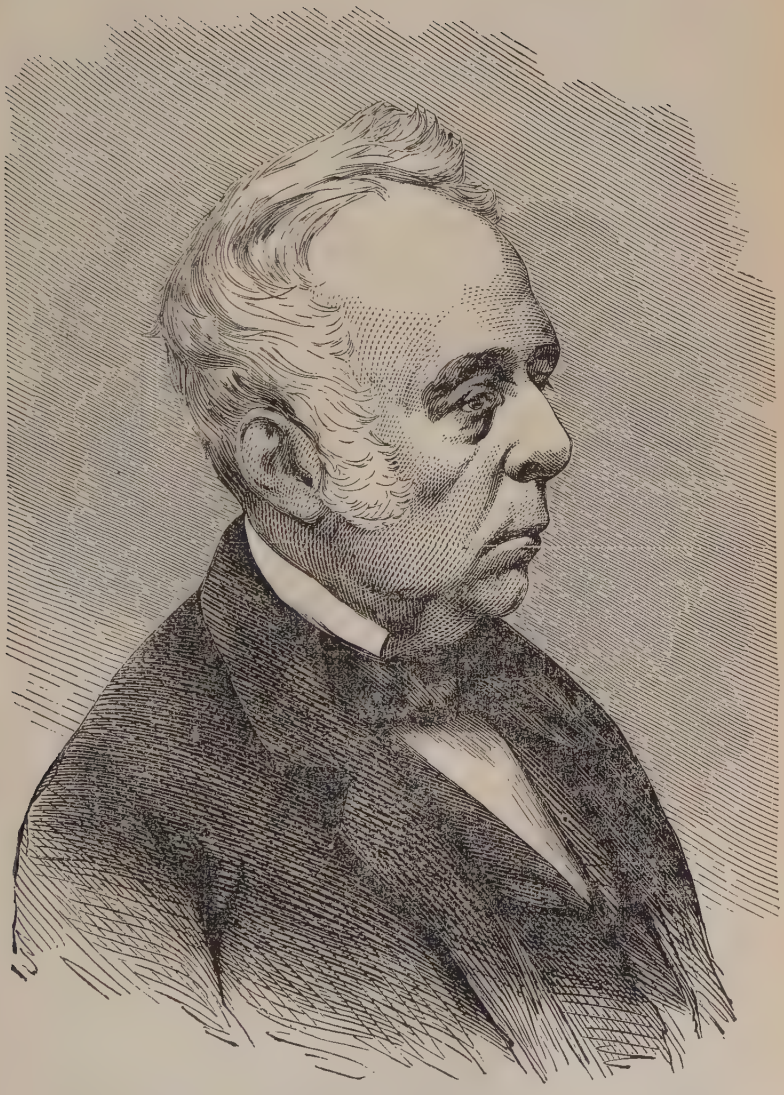
strongest supporters of Stephen A. Douglas for the presidency; yet so strong was his love for peace and order, and so far did his love for his country exceed his love of party, that he proved a stanch friend of Mr. Lincoln, after his election.

During the rebellion Mr. Logan's record was one of which, either as an honest man, an officer, or a patriot, no one need be ashamed.

In 1862 he was urged to again take part in political life, by allowing his name to be used as candidate for Congressman-at-large, but he declined, believing that he had higher duties to fulfil, and that there were many who could fill that position as well as he. In 1868 he was offered the position of Minister to Mexico, but declined it, and was then elected a Representative to the Fortieth Congress, was re-elected to the Forty-first, and appointed chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, for which he was eminently qualified. In Congress, as on the battle-field, he is impetuous, fiery, out-spoken, frank—sometimes rash. He was styled the "Murat of the Army," and deserves, better than any living orator and statesman, the title of the Calhoun of the age.

REVERDY JOHNSON.

NEW are the links that are left to bind us to an age that seems so far in the past, and one of that few is Reverdy Johnson, Senator from Maryland, who was born in Annapolis in that State, May 26, 1796. His father was an eminent lawyer and held the offices of Attorney General, Judge of Appeals, and Chancellor of the State of Maryland. Reverdy was sent to the primary department of St. John's College when but six years old, and remained in that institution until, having pursued a thorough classical and mathematical course, he left the school without graduating, and studied law in his father's office. One day, as the boy sat delving deep in the musty old tomes, it was told him that the British were about to attack Washington. The en-



REVERDY JOHNSON.

thusiastic young student, seeing a regiment of hastily recruited volunteers marching past, caught his cap and joined them in such haste that his slippers, in which he sat to study, were not changed for more substantial shoes, and before half the distance was passed, he was barefooted; but his company were in time to take part in the battle of Bladensburg, August 24, 1815. Two years after he removed to Baltimore, where he had an extensive practice and held the position of Chief Commissioner of Insolvent Debtors. In 1812 he was elected State Senator of Maryland for a term of five years, and re-elected at its expiration, but resigned his seat at the end of the second year, and returned to his profession, to which he gave his undivided attention.

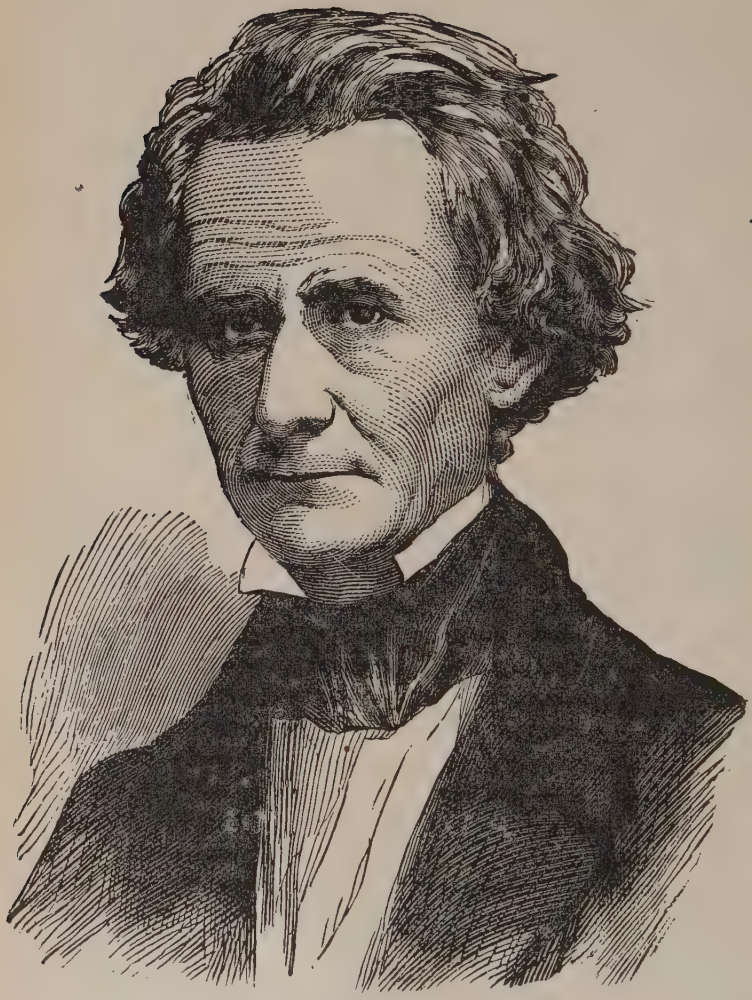
In legal learning Mr. Johnson is said to stand at the head of the profession in America, and in all parts of the United States, and in Europe his services have been sought. In California he has several times tried cases requiring great skill and nice judgment, and in England he tried successfully a case involving a heavy sum against our government.

In politics Mr. Johnson has been a whig, and was a warm personal friend of Clay; yet believing that the interests of the country would be advanced thereby he used all his influence to secure the election of Jackson over Adams. When General Taylor was elected President Mr. Johnson was appointed Attorney General, but upon the death of his friend he resigned the office. When the policy of southern leaders made war inevitable, Mr. Johnson threw the full force of his influence against it, and declared that secession was heresy and madness; and in 1860, before the Supreme Court, he pronounced one of the most glowing and eloquent eulogies upon union, picturing in the strongest terms the condition of the several States, and the disgraceful position of our republic before the world, should secession be successful. At Baltimore, while Maryland wavered between loyalty and rebellion, he labored almost frantically for the Union. A speech which he made before thousands of her citizens, is conceded to be one of the most powerful ever delivered upon the subject, and gave him a most honorable reputation. In 1862 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in 1864 gave his vote for the unconditional abolishment of slavery; also in the Thirty-ninth Congress he favored the immediate readmission of the seceded States. When

the Military Reconstruction Bill was before the Senate he opposed it, but when even this seemed likely to be lost, and nothing gained in its stead, eager that any measure which should re-admit the South to her old rights under the government should be adopted, he urged its passage. Mr. Johnson has been one of the most industrious men of the Senate, or in public life, and his record is a grand one, an honor to himself and the State he represents. His death occured Feb. 10th 1876, at Annapolis Md.

SIMON CAMERON.

SIMON CAMERON, better known as Secretary Cameron, was born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, March 8th, 1799, and educated himself while following his trade, which was that of a printer. He edited and published a paper called the Pennsylvania Intelligencer, and before he reached the age of twenty-two was editor of a paper in Harrisburg. He was active in promoting the welfare of the State, urging forward every internal improvement which could add to her wealth and prosperity. In 1832 he established the Middleton Bank, and was president of two railroad companies. He was appointed by Governor Shultze Adjutant-General of Pennsylvania, and in 1845 was elected United States Senator for four years. His term of office expired, he again devoted himself to internal improvements and finances. 1857 found him again in the Senate, for six years, but he resigned to become Secretary of War under President Lincoln: but his views were so widely different from those entertained by the administration, that he withdrew from the cabinet and was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia. He found the Czar freeing the serfs, and his heart went out in rejoicing that this nation had so soon recognized the great principles of right and justice,

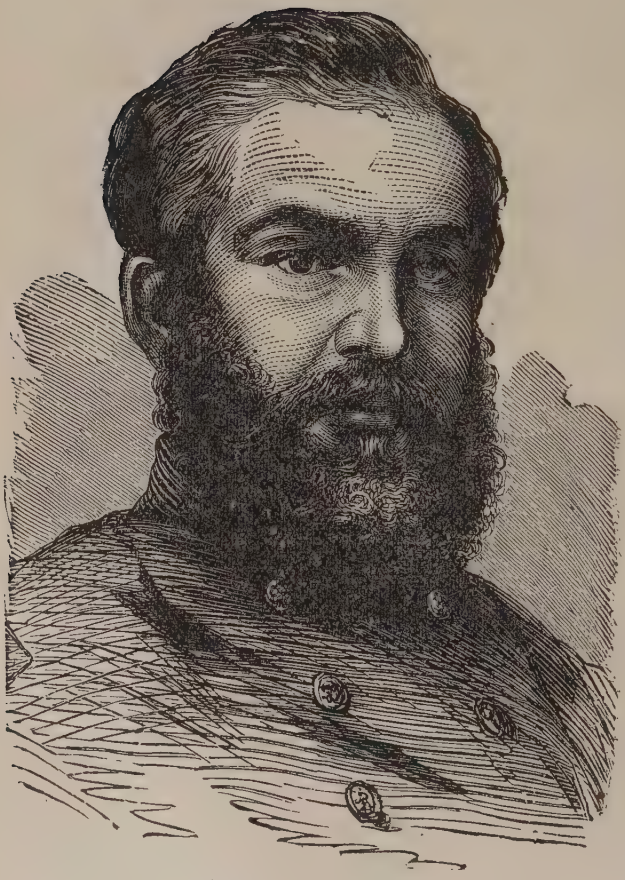


SIMON CAMERON.

and he congratulated him for taking a position demanded of him by the age. He had been eager, from the first outbreak of the war between the North and South, that the services of the negroes should be accepted by the government for soldiers, and now he resigned his position abroad and hastened home to aid his country in her struggle. When at last his long cherished wish was carried out and the negroes armed, he offered to raise a regiment and lead them into the field, but his services were more needed elsewhere. He continued to devote himself to the interests of the Union, and in 1866 was again elected to the United States Senate for the term ending 1873, and was at once placed on the Committee on Foreign Affairs. He was bitterly opposed to the administration of Johnson, feeling that it must be disastrous to the country, hence voted for his impeachment. In 1860 he was a candidate for the nomination for the presidency. As a statesman, a politician and a financier, he is shrewd, but ever honest and fair.

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

A CRITIC in the Northwestern Review, who was wise enough to withhold his name, says that "a man's success is the gage of his ability." I admire the excellent taste of the author in remaining anonymous. Every living being is, more or less, the victim of circumstances. He may be the favorite of fortune, or the target of misfortune, and a vast deal of energy and persistence would be needed, a vast deal of tact and ingenuity, too, to enable one to turn his disadvantages to advantage, and out-wit even fate by turning her weapons against herself. I believe a man can be almost anything he will dare to be, but there are far too many who will not dare to be anything. There is little question but there is an up-hill path for every man, if he



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

will not waste the first and best years of life in loitering in the pleasant valleys—later, it is hidden by weeds and tangled vines that have sprung up and covered it It is a pleasant task to trace with mind and pen the career of the strong, brave men, who, struggling with poverty, friendless and alone, make for themselves a place on the pages of history. Perhaps there are few, if any, of those who have risen by their own efforts who deserve more credit than James A. Garfield. He was born in Cuyahoga county, Ohio, in 1831. His father died when he was but a child—the youngest of four, of whom all were so young as to be entirely dependent upon their widowed mother. James attended the district school a few months in winter, and aided his mother, as soon as he was old enough, by working at the carpenter's trade; but not liking the employment, he went as teamster or boatman on the canal. He loved the water, and the free life of a sailor had for him peculiar attractions, and he looked with fond longings to the time when he should be able to go upon the lakes or the ocean, and some day be owner of a gallant boat that would be able to outride storm and gale. A severe fit of sickness prevented him from immediately carrying out his darling project, and health returning but slowly, he began to attend the "Geauga Academy." He was too poor to pay his board, but took a room in a dreary little farm house and cooked his own simple meals. Subsequently he taught school and attended the academy alternately until his twenty-second year, when he entered Williams College, in Massachusetts. Here, after two years of study he graduated with high honors, when he returned to his home in Ohio, where he was made teacher of Latin and Greek in the Eclectic Institute, and soon after president of the institution. While he held this position he studied law, and also began to look into politics with something of the interest natural to a "rising young lawyer." In 1859 he represented Portage and Summit counties in the Ohio Legislature, where he soon took a high position, both as a well-read politician, an eloquent and witty debater.

When the war broke out, Mr. Garfield at once identified himself with the interests of the North, and held almost every position in the army, from lieutenant to general. While still on the battle-field he was elected to the Thirty-eighth Congress from Ohio, and after three years of hard service the brave soldier

resigned his commission to serve his country in another capacity. His sterling good sense and fine abilities made him justly popular, and he was re-elected for the Thirty-ninth Congress by a majority of *twelve thousand*. His thorough information on all financial questions and matters, recommended him for the position of Chairman on the Committee of Ways and Means, in which capacity he gave the utmost satisfaction, being considered one of the best of financiers. He was re-elected to the Forty-first Congress and was made chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs. He is a fine looking man, still young, and very popular. We have few, if any, better specimens of the "self-made man" than Mr. Garfield.

BENJAMIN F. WADE.

BENJAMIN F. WADE, of Ohio, is a character well worth studying, and a man who will not suffer in public opinion by a careful analysis of his history. He was born in Feeding Hill Parish, Mass., on the 27th of October, 1800, and was the youngest of ten children. His father was a soldier in the revolutionary war, and fought in every battle from Bunker Hill to Yorktown. His mother was a woman of rare worth and intellect, the daughter of a Presbyterian minister. The family were very poor—indeed, among the poorest in New England, and Beniamin was educated by his mother, never having attended school.

The boy worked on a farm a few years, but his labors were rewarded by meagre wages, and at length he turned to the broad west for a field where wealth and honor might repay his efforts. When eighteen years old he started for Illinois on foot, with his wardrobe in a handkerchief on his shoulder, and five dollars in

BENJAMIN F. WADE

money in his pocket. He walked as far as Ohio, when the deep snow and bitter cold rendered it difficult for him to proceed, and he remained in Ashtabula county and chopped wood until spring for fifty cents per cord. His evenings and all spare moments were given to study; in the summer he cleared land and worked with his might at anything which his hands found to do. In the winter he taught a district school, and then for two years was engaged in buying and selling cattle. When about twenty-three years old he began to study law, and was admitted to the bar in two years, and made rapid progress in his profession, though he had to wait twelve weary months for his first case; but the ability he displayed in managing it procured his election to the office of Prosecuting Attorney of Ashtabula county. He was soon after sent to the State Senate where he took an important part in securing the abolition of the law for imprisonment for debt, and also against the admission of Texas as a slave State. The latter act gave offense to his friends, and lost him his office for the next two terms.

In 1841 Mr. Wade was elected Judge of the Third Judicial Circuit, and retained the position four years, when he was elected United States Senator from Ohio. He was not an aspirant for the office—had never asked or sought it in any way, and in his first speech on the Senate floor declared that, since he must act in that capacity, he should act, not with a view to gaining popularity, but that humanity might be benefited by his labors. In those days republicans were few in Congress, and had but little influence or power, but Mr. Wade at once avowed his sentiments to be in sympathy with that party. He met the members from the southern States friendly and fearlessly. Tombs, of Georgia, who admired him much, once said of him to the Senators from the northern States, "He is always honest, outspoken and straightforward—I wish to God the rest of you were like him."

There was a time when Mr. Wade came so near being our President that, as one historian says, "He barely missed it." Near the close of the Thirty-ninth Congress, when it seemed likely that the impeachment of Mr. Johnson would remove him from office, Mr. Wade was elected President of the Senate for the balance of the term, and the same author adds, "The narrowness of Mr. Johnson's escape and the nearness of Mr. Wade to being

President, are among the curiosities of history." The oratorical powers of Senator Wade are not remarkable or brilliant, but he is forcible and fiery, and has a way of presenting a subject when he has worked it out in his own mind, which impresses his hearers deeply. He is plain and unaffected in manners, and the usual stern look on his face softens sometimes into sweetness and tenderness, or grows radiant with lofty thoughts and noble aspirations.

FREDERICK SAWYER.

FREDERICK SAWYER was born in Bolton, Mass., and graduated at Harvard in 1844. He made teaching a profession, and in 1859 accepted the position of principal in a young ladies' normal school in Charleston, S. C., and remained there until 1864, when he yielded to the persistent entreaties of his friends on the Board of Commissioners of the normal school, then removed north. Mr. Sawyer possessed those qualities that endeared him to his pupils and friends, and though too honest and fearless to conceal his loyal sentiments, those who differed from him in opinion were still steadfast friends and admirers. Beyond the fact that himself and family were in the center of the theater of war, he was unmolested; and when hostilities ceased he returned to Charleston, where he was cordially welcomed. The first civil appointment made in the State after the war, was that of Mr. Sawyer as collector of internal revenue for the second district of South Carolina. The appointment gave satisfaction to the people, and he was elected a member of the convention that formed the new constitution for the State. He was elected to represent the State in the national Senate, and so great was his popularity that all political parties gave him their support, and he

received a large majority of votes. Mr. Sawyer was as much a favorite in the Senate as he had been in private life, and as a debater, soon took high rank. He is easy and graceful in manners, a fluent and pleasant speaker, witty, and even brilliant; but never bitter, sarcastic, or regardless of the feelings of any one, not even his political opponents. He is no slight antagonist, yet so thoroughly courteous that though they may be defeated in argument and measures, no adversary will speak unkindly of him or impeach his honor or integrity.

WHITMAN T. WILLEY.

WHITMAN T. WILLEY, one of Virginia's ablest and noblest representatives, was born in Mongalia, in the "Old Dominion," October 18th, 1811, and his first home was a log-cabin, but just twenty feet square. According to the custom of the day, the child was early taught to do such work as he was able to, and until he was sixteen years old worked upon the farm, attending the country school occasionally a few weeks at a time, and once, for two months was sent to a grammar school. At sixteen he was sent to Madison College, where, after four years study he graduated with the highest honors. He studied law at Wellsburg, Virginia, and was admitted to the bar in 1833, and soon secured a good practice. In 1850 he was elected a member of the convention for reforming the Constitution of Virginia, and here he sustained the high reputation which he bore, and took a prominent part. As a speaker, he was highly complimented; as a statesman he bid fair to rise high. In 1865 Mr. Willey was nominated as candidate for Lieutenant-Governor. Commenting on the nomination, the Richmond Whig pronounced him one of the ablest and most eloquent men in Virginia. In ad-

dition to his position as a distinguished lawyer, his private and public character was without a single stain, and he was a most consistent christian. The ticket however, was not popular, and though Mr. Willey's name went far to save it, was not carried in the election.

In 1860 he took the ground he might naturally have been expected to chose, and exerted his influence to the utmost for the Union. In the winter of 1860–61, he was elected to a seat in the Richmond Convention. The works of that body are well known. The act of secession was passed, and West Virginia refusing to be governed by it, the State was divided against itself, and a new capital was located at Wheeling. The legislature organized there sent Mr. Willey to represent it in the Senate of the United States. His position was most trying and critical, but he bore the trial nobly, as became a christian and a patriot. Some of his speeches of that date have few if any equals. His great heart throbbed in sympathy with his country as if the suffering were inflicted upon himself, and the hot blood flushed his cheek as he thought of the disgrace which disunion of the States must bring upon the nation. He exclaimed, "Sir, this Union *can not* be dissolved. Nature and Providence forbid it. Our rivers, lakes, mountains, and the whole geographical conformation of the country rebuke the hand that would sever them. We are one in language, in law in religion, and in destiny. 'Whom God hath joined together, let not man put asunder.' The past has been glorious, but the future shall be sublime." He labored earnestly and unwearily, and it was mainly through his exertions that West Virginia was admitted at once into the Union as a State. He was elected Senator from the new State for two years, and before the expiration of the term was re-elected for the term ending 1871.

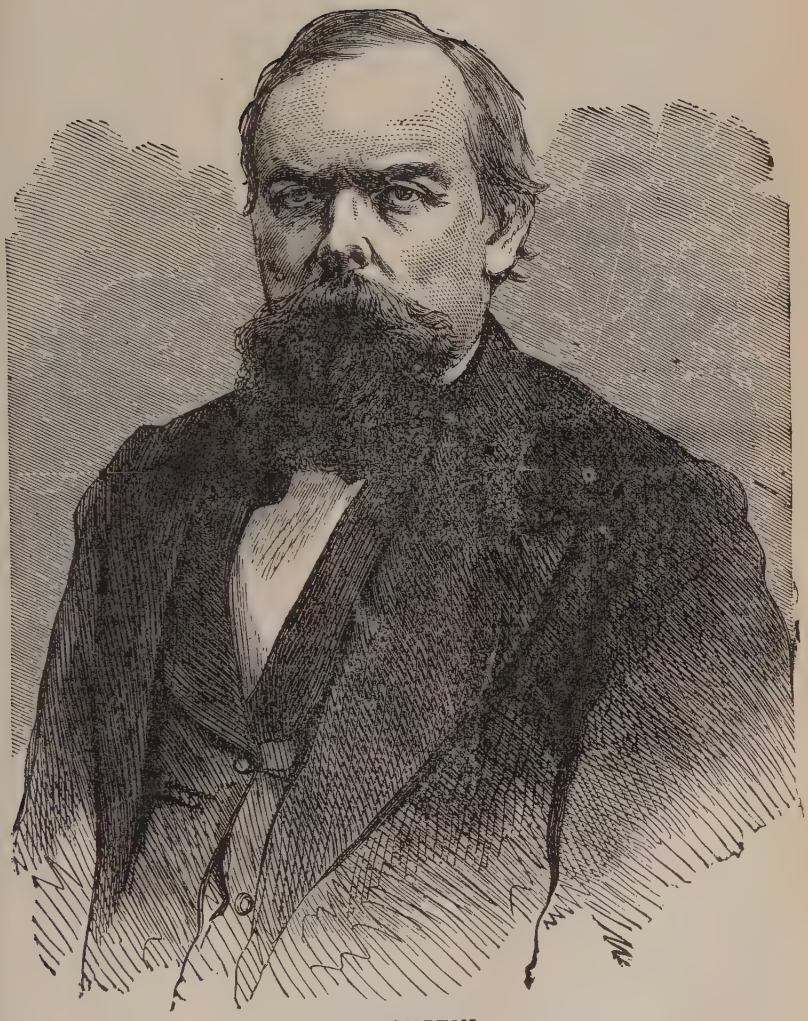
There is much in the character of this gentleman which it would be pleasant to dwell upon, but no pen can do him justice which does not bring before the world as brightly as possible the sterling worth and integrity—the incorruptible honor of the man. He is comparatively poor—has at some periods of his public life been in straightened circumstances, and has in a great measure always sacrificed his prospects financially for principle, and to an earnest desire to serve the country. Referring to this he once said, "Poverty is more desirable than ill-gotten gains. I will live honest, if

I die poor. I will live an honorable man, if I die in obscurity. I would not exchange the approbation of a good conscience for the hoards of Crœsus, and the crown of an emperor would not tempt me to barter my integrity."

Mr. Willey is a member of the Methodist Church, and his simple, unaffected piety impresses one with its sincerity and genuine truthfulness. He has been foremost in every good work. The Sabbath School and the temperance cause have found in him a steadfast friend and an able and eloquent advocate.

JUSTIN S. MORRILL.

JUSTIN S. MORRILL was born in Stafford, Vermont, 1810. At fifteen years of age he was taken from school, to which he never returned, and placed in a country store. In 1848 he turned his attention from mercantile to agricultural pursuits, in 1854 was elected a representative from Vermont to the Thirty-fourth Congress, and was re-elected until he had filled the office twelve years. During the Thirty-ninth Congress he was Chairman of the House. In 1856 he opposed the admission of Kansas, also the Lecompton Constitution. February 6th, 1857, he delivered a powerful speech on tariff in opposition to the bill of Campbell, of Ohio. He also opposed making paper currency legal tender on account of the difficulty which would be experienced by the government in resuming specie payment. In 1866 he was elected Senator in Congress from Vermont for six years. His speeches have always been characterized by their ability and honesty. The labor of preparing the Internal Revenue Tax Bill was largely borne by him, and has been pronounced the most perfect system ever devised by any nation.



OLIVER P. MORTON.

OLIVER P. MORTON.

OLIVER P. MORTON was born in Wayne county, Indiana, August 4th, 1823. His parents died while he was a child, and he was committed to the care of his grandmother, and apprenticed to learn the trade of a hatter. This was not, however, to the boy's taste. At the age of fourteen he entered the Wayne County Seminary, and afterwards graduated at the Miami University. He was admitted to the bar in 1846. Six years later, having taken rank among the most able lawyers of the State, he was elected Judge of the Circuit Court. In 1854 Mr. Morton aided in forming the Republican party. Until this time he had been a stanch democrat. He was nominated, in 1856, for governor of Indiana, but lost the election; but his campaign speeches did much to aid the party of which he was a member, and in 1860 it triumphantly elected Henry S. Lane governor and Oliver P. Morton lieuteuant-governor. On the 16th January, 1861, Governor Lane was sent to the United States Senate, and Mr. Morton thus became governor of the State. It was in the midst of gathering and threatening danger to the Union that he was inaugurated. Indiana stood divided on the great question before the public, and the seceding States were given to understand that they would have more than the sympathies of Indiana. To see that she remained true to the Union was the work of the new governor. Soon came the call for men, and the startled nation rose to answer. To the earnest appeal of Mr. Morton, the response came in the shape of forty thousand volunteers for the federal army. For four years he was actively engaged in studying and promoting the welfare and comfort of the soldiers. In ferreting out and defeating the secret organization known as the "Knights of the Golden Circle," he employed secret detectives, placed agents at every point in the State, and thus prevented their triumph in well laid plans. The exposure of the organization

showed that it numbered eighty thousand men, well-drilled, well-armed and disciplined, ready at any time to obey orders, and bound together by the most solemn oaths. The discovery of their plans alone prevented Indiana from being the scene of the most terrible outbreak. When the war was ended, there came a day when the great strain so long kept upon nerve and brain might relax, and the overtaxed body could rest, but it was near coming too late to save the life that had been so freely and unselfishly used for others. In the summer of 1865 he suffered a stroke of paralysis, and every effort to bring him relief proved vain. His physicians recommended change of air, and he sailed for Europe. After an absence of a year he returned, only partially recovered, however, and resumed his official labors.

In January, 1867, he was elected to the United States Senate and resigned the governorship for this office. He is so feeble as often to sit while addressing the House, but his mind is as strong and active as ever, and his speeches are among the most able and eloquent; and in all that pertains to a noble and unsullied manhood, patriotism above reproach, and honor above suspicion, he stands high among American statesmen.

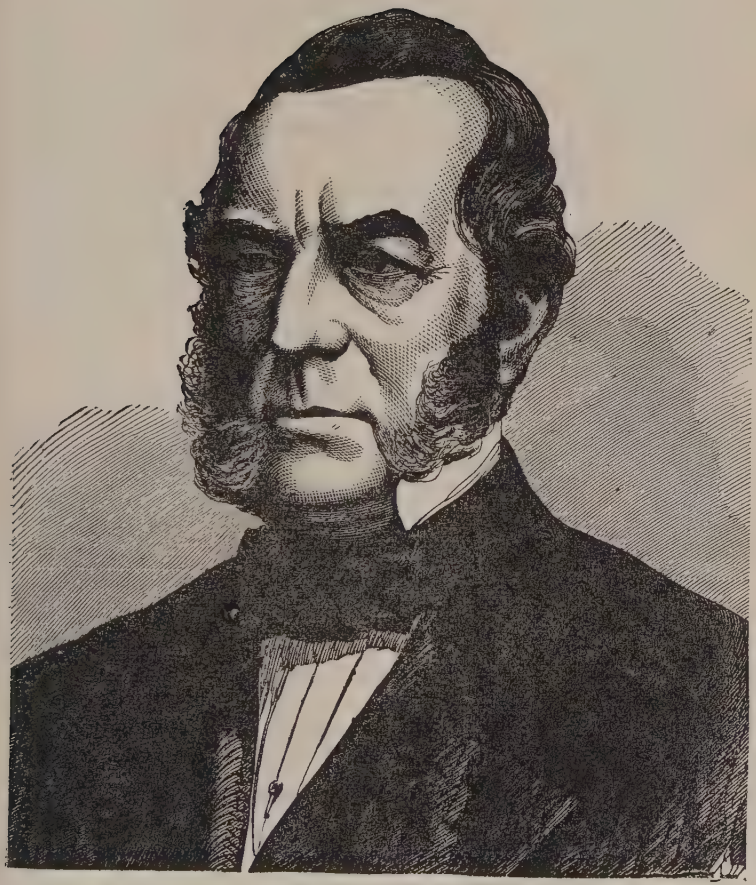
WILLARD SAULSBURY.

WILLARD SAULSBURY was born in Kent county, Delaware, June 2, 1820. He was educated with great care, attending both Delaware and Dickinson colleges, from the latter of which he graduated. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1845; rose rapidly in his profession, and was appointed attorney general of his native State, holding the office five years. In 1859 he was elected Senator in Congress from Delaware, and was re-elected for the term ending 1871. He

was a member of the Chicago Convention in 1864, and has been, during his entire political career, a consistent democrat, true to his party whether it was in sunshine or clouds, in majority or minority—in triumph or defeat; true, not to *party*, but to party principles, and faithful to the Union. From the first moment that the idea of secession had a tangible form, he opposed it. When the message of Buchanan, December, 1860, gave them for the first time something to grasp, he met the arguments of Wigfall and Ivison unflinchingly, and declared that Delaware *could not* fail to be loyal to the Union; and when, later, Jefferson Davis produced his celebrated resolutions in favor of the disunion of the States, Mr. Saulsbury rose and moved that parts of Washington's farewell address be substituted; and was the only democratic member who did not vote for them when passed. He voted in favor of the act which authorized President Lincoln to use military force for the collection of revenues from the port of Charleston, and giving him the authority of commander-in-chief. During the war, and after, he steadily opposed the republican majority in the Senate, and voted against the civil rights bill and the freedmen's bureau. His opposition was fearless and honest—never shrinking from a duty because unpleasant or unpopular, never hesitating to denounce what he believed to be wrong because the majority favored it, and never courting popularity at the expense of his honor.

EDWIN D. MORGAN.

EDWIN D. MORGAN was born in the town of Washington, Massachusetts, 1811. He attended the common schools until he was twelve years old, when his family removed to Windsor. While yet a young man, he engaged in mercantile business, and by honesty and industry succeeded in establishing a fine



EDWIN D. MORGAN.

wholesale business. In 1836 he removed to New York city and entered business there.

Mr. Morgan was a Whig, and when the party, defeated in its attempts to elect Henry Clay, who was its idol, rallied and reorganized, and became the Republican party, he was one of its stanchest friends and supporters. In 1856 he was Vice-President of the Republican National Convention, and was there made Chairman of the National Committee. In 1855 he was appointed Commissioner of Emigration, which office he held until he was made governor in 1838, and he was re-elected to the same office at the close of the first term by the largest majority ever given to a Governor in New York. He entered upon his duties at a time when it required calm decision, good judgment, freedom from party prejudice and great firmness. All these traits of character he possessed. The treasury of the State was literally empty, its credit overtaxed, and a strong party were craftily working to get possession of her canals, while her harbor defenses were so poor as actually to invite invasion. The canal finances were his first care, and with that energy and perseverance for which he was marked, he took grounds against their sale, urged their immediate completion, and before the close of his last term, had the satisfaction of seeing this carried out, and knowing that they were adding materially to the revenues of the State. Harbor defenses did not progress so rapidly, and it was not until 1863 that the defenseless condition of the State was forced upon their attention by the prospect of a possible war with England and France, and danger of ravages of privateers, that the legislature made an appropriation of $1,000,000 for the necessary improvements. Everything was done that was necessary, and in the best order, but the alarm, magnified by the imagination of the people, subsided, the money was placed in the treasury, subject to the order of the proper authorities, and with the exception of $5000 consumed in the purchase of material, wood, iron and stone, remains untouched. In 1861 when the first shot struck the flag that Washington followed to victory—the stripes and stars that every nation on earth paid homage to—the ensign of freedom that had been many a soldier-hero's shroud and pall, the people uprose to shield it,—Mr. Morgan was one of the first to answer the call, and the quota of New York for men and money was about one-fifth of all that

was asked. The legislature appropriated three and a half million dollars, and authorized the raising of 30,000 men. When the President's call came for 25,000 men from New York, 120,600 were waiting, and no call was ever made on that State that was not filled at once.

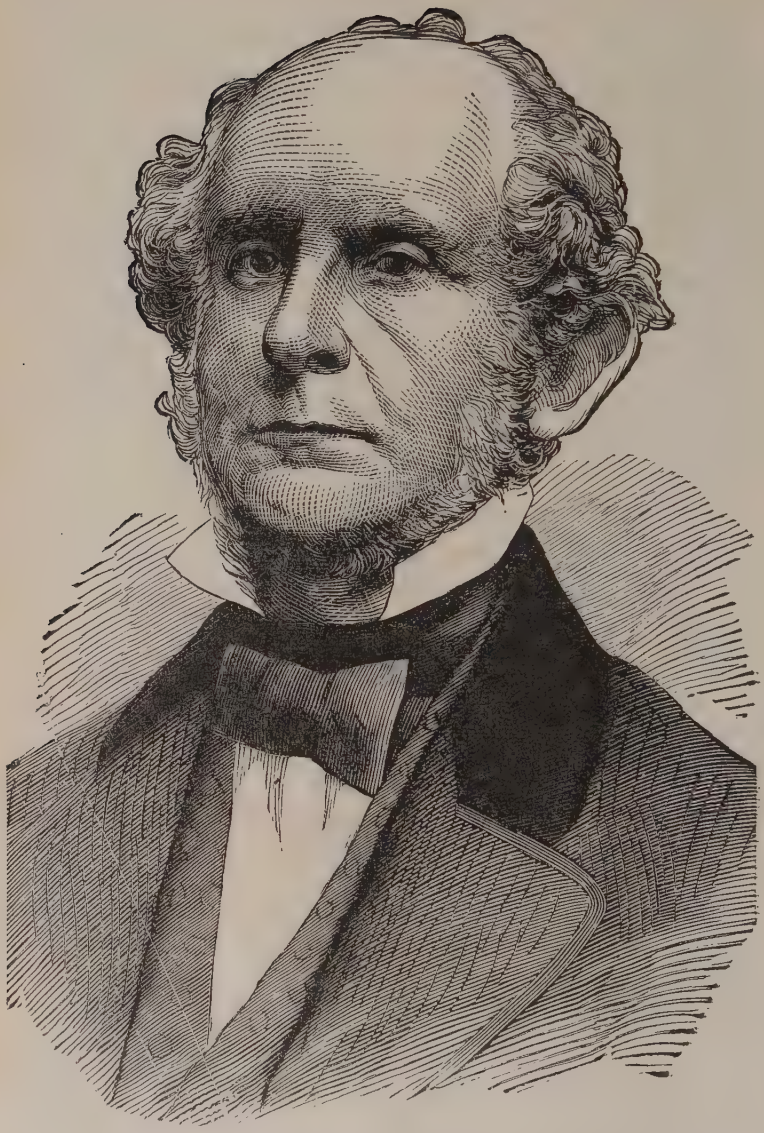
In February, 1862, he was elected to the United States Senate for a term of six years, and he served on committees on almost every subject that comes under the supervision of the Senate. On the retirement of Mr. Fessenden from the position of Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Morgan was solicited by Mr. Lincoln, to accept the position, but declined. Notwithstanding this, he was nominated without his knowledge, and only upon the most determined refusal on his part, was he allowed to withdraw his name.

In 1867 Williams College, Massachusetts, conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Laws.

CHARLES D. DRAKE.

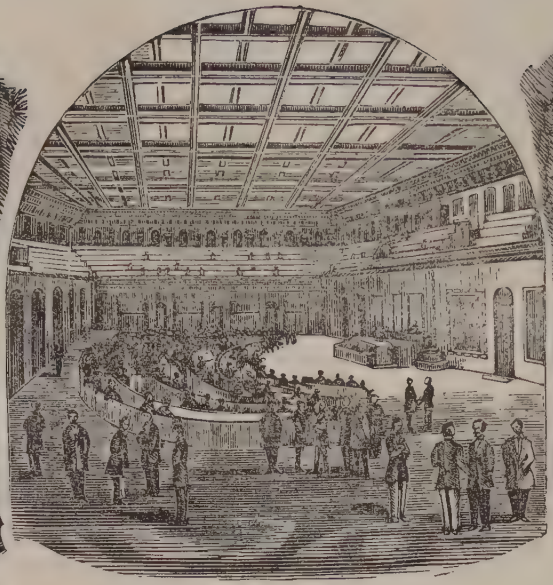
CHARLES D. DRAKE was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, April 11th, 1811; received his education in the common schools of the West, and afterwards was sent to Partridge's Military School in Connecticut, where he became a midshipman in the navy, in which he served until January, 1830, when he withdrew, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1833, and settled in St. Louis, then a town of only a few thousand inhabitants. In 1859 he was elected to fill a vacancy in the House of Representatives in Missouri, but took no part in public life until 1869, laboring night and day for the election of Stephen A. Douglas to the Presidency.

During the rebellion he took a most earnest stand for the Union—the "Constitution and the Union unconditionally." In



CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

NATURAL BRIDGE, VIRGINIA.



HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, WASHINGTON.

FALLS OF NIAGARA.

1863 Mr. Drake was elected a member of the Missouri State Convention, which was called by the governor to consult upon the slave question, and there he took the ground of immediate action, and advocated immediate emancipation. This was overruled, however, and the convention originated and adopted a scheme of gradual emancipation, so slow in its working as to scarcely terminate slavery by the year 1900. Mr. Drake was chairman of the committee from Missouri who waited upon President Lincoln to lay before him the statement of the condition of the State, people, and finances. In 1867 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in his steadfast adherence to radicalism as opposed to the conservatism of that day, no one, not even his most bitter enemy, can charge him with a sentiment dishonorable to himself or his constituents.

WILLIAM P. FESSENDEN.

FORTY years of political life and faithful service—of devotion to State and Union—on which lie no spot or blemish—years of unsullied patriotism, solicitude and care patiently and unselfishly borne; years of unstained political honor—make up the public life of this good man. He was born in Boscawen, New Hampshire, in 1806, graduated at Bowdoin College in 1823, and was admitted to the Portland bar in 1827. In 1831, when but twenty-five years of age, he was elected to the State Legislature, and though he was the youngest member of the House—a boy in years and experience compared with his associates, he distinguished himself for his clear judgment, his unbiased opinions, his independence of character, and his spirit and ability in debate. As a lawyer he rose rapidly in his profession. In 1839 he represented the city of Portland in the State Legislature. At this time the House was Democratic, and Mr. Fessenden was a

Whig, remarkable then, as always, for his unswerving constancy to principle. So great was the respect he commanded for his honesty and ability, that he was placed on the Judiciary Committee, and made chairman of the committee for revising the statutes of the State. In 1840 he was nominated for Congress by the Whig party, and by an immense majority. In 1843 he declined re-election, and in 1845 was returned to the State Legislature. On being renominated the following year he declined to again accept the office, and confined himself to the practice of his profession, in which he now stood as high as any man in his State. He was a member of the national convention which elected General Harrison President in 1840, again of the convention which nominated General Taylor in 1848, and also of the convention which nominated General Scott in 1852. In 1853 he was a member of the legislature, also the following year; and although a stanch Whig, and both branches, Democratic, he was elected United States Senator. This was the result of a breach caused by the Kansas-Nebraska question; and may, indeed, be said to have been the origin of the Republican party in Maine, since the union of the Whigs and Free Soil Democrats must needs result in the birth of a new party. Mr. Fessenden, opposed with all his strength, the Nebraska bill, and upon its passage delivered one of the most powerful speeches ever made in the halls of the Maine Legislature, and which at once decided his position as one of the ablest men of the day; and through all the changes of time, and the ups and downs of party life, he has steadily held that position. In 1839, without nomination, so decided was public opinion on the point, he was sent to the United States Senate for six years, and appointed by President Lincoln Secretary of the Treasury, to fill the vacancy caused by Salmon P. Chase's being appointed Judge of the Supreme Court. He was chairman of the Committee on Finance in the Senate, and here his excellent abilities as a financier were invaluable to the country; especially as it required the most rigid economy and the finest judgment to enable the government to meet the heavy expenses of the war. We doubt if any man in the Senate was better calculated to do the work which he did; for his great discretion and fine powers of estimating the practicability of a measure were almost perfect. His information is general, enabling him to speak without preparation upon all

the ordinary topics of the day; and his remarks, though brief, are always the word in season. He is polite and courteous in debate, never forgetting to yield to his opponent as much as he asks for himself; and though his principles and views are unchangeable, he never misrepresents nor wrongs those who believe differently from himself.

When President Johnson was impeached Mr. Fessenden voted for his acquittal, not for the sake of the individual, but the office he held, preferring rather that he go unpunished, if guilty, than have a precedent of this kind, weakening as it must, the authority and dignity of the chief executive, and placing him, as the representative of our national honor, in a disgraceful position before the world. Although many of his friends regreted this step on his part, and others censured it, there remains not a question of the purity of his motive, or even of the wisdom of his decision.

He died September 8th, 1869.

JAMES HARLAN.

JAMES HARLAN was born in Illinois, and like a large majority of those who have risen to distinction, was a farm boy, who literally "earned his bread by the sweat of his brow." Habits of industry, economy and temperance prepared him for the great work which lay before him. Without time or money to give to his education, it was mostly acquired by study during evenings and stormy days, when his agricultural labors were temporarily suspended, and in 1841 he was ready to enter the preparatory department of Asbury College, then under the presidency of Bishop Simpson. With no means except what he earned by teaching winters, and during vacations, he struggled on most manfully, and graduated with honor in 1845, and the following winter was elected Professor of Languages in Iowa College.

Without friends or influence, a stranger and unaided, he attained to an enviable position, and when he had been there but two years was elected Superintendent of Education for the State of Iowa. In 1848 he was succeeded by the Hon. Thomas H. Benton, Jr., on what was afterwards proven to be fraudulent election returns.

He now commenced the practice of law, and continued it until 1853, when, by the Annual Conference of the Methodist Church he was elected President of the Mt. Pleasant Collegiate Institute. In 1850 he had been nominated by the people for Governor, but as he was not at that time old enough to be elected constitutionally, they were reluctantly compelled to wait for time to remedy this defect in their favorite. In 1855 he was elected to the United States Senate, resigned the Presidency of the University, and was elected Professor of Political Economy and International Law. He met, in the Senate, some of the most able and some of the most unprincipled of our politicians, even those who had been for many years familiar with chicanery and diplomacy, who cared far more to carry a point, be it by right or wrong means, than they did for the honor of the Constitution and the preservation of the Union. They soon learned that, though young in years, it would be no light work to corrupt his principles or to win him over to be a party tool for their own or his advancement. For two years he held his seat unquestioned, when the Democratic members of the House finding him in the way of the prosecution of some of their schemes, knowing that the resolute will and unbending spirit of the man threatened exposure and defeat for them, declared that he was not entitled to his seat—that he had not been fairly elected, and he was no longer a member of the Senate. Mr. Harlan was not prepared to accept the situation, to quietly permit what he believed to be wrong to triumph in that manner; neither were the people disposed to have their voice stifled, and their choice set aside in this manner. The legislature was in session, and he hastened to Iowa City, was immediately re-elected, returned to Washington, was resworn, and at once proceeded with his duties as if no Democratic party had been in existence. In 1861 he was elected for his second term, and commanded the respect of his opponents by his fearless defense of whatever he believed was right and demanded by the best inter-

R. N. T. HUNTER.

ests of the people, and his honesty and truthfulness secured the friendship of political opponents. He long and ably opposed secession, assuring the southern members that though the people of the South were earnest, and many of them conscientious, yet any effort on their part to sever the Union *must* result in disastrous failure, since the will of the majority would be, "preserve the Union *at any cost.*"

He was a member of the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, on which he was thoroughly informed, and was also a member of the Committee on Agriculture and a member of the Peace Congress. He was also a member of the Union Congressional Committee for the presidential campaign for 1864, having been chosen by the union members for the office, and on the 15th May he became a member of President Johnson's cabinet, but the course of the President was so at variance with his views that he resigned his position and left the office, with the approval of his friends and the regret of the President.

His speech, as Senator from Iowa, on the impeachment trial of President Johnson, is said to be the most powerful effort of his life. He has always been identified with the anti-slavery party, and his strongest labors in that direction have been so tempered with love, good will and the charity which "thinketh no evil," that even those whom he met in that bitterly waged war gave him their respect and confidence. He is still in the prime of life, a noble Christian gentleman and a patriot of unquestioned honor.

JOHN C. BRECKINRIDGE.

JOHN C. BRECKINRIDGE was born at Lexington, Kentucky, January 21st, 1821. He was educated at Center College, and studied law at Transylvania Institute and removed to Iowa, designing in the new far west to build up a reputation as enduring as the institutions of the State whose interests and advancement should be identical with his own. But his love

for the South, and especially for Kentucky, was so strong that his heart longed for a resting-place in his native State, and he returned to Lexington, which he ever after made his home.

During the Mexican war he entered the military service and was elected Major of the Third Kentucky Regiment Volunteers, but was so late in the field he saw little actual service. Returning home at the close of the war he was elected to the House of Representatives in Kentucky, and all the brilliant qualities of the man were called out in debate. In 1851 he was elected to the Federal House of Representatives after a rather exciting contest, over General Leslie Coombs. In 1853 he was renominated and ran against Governor Robert Letcher, and met in him the strongest opposition he ever faced; for at that time party spirit ran high and fierce. After the death of Henry Clay he was chosen to deliver an eulogy upon his character, and though widely differing from him in views of national polity, his admiration of the fine qualities of the man, his talents and his patriotism, made the task a pleasant one, and he united with the nation in its grief for its loss of the great statesman. The tribute which he paid to the memory of the departed was touchingly eloquent and beautiful. When Franklin Pierce was elected to the Presidency, Mr. Breckinridge was offered the appointment of Minister to Spain, but declined it, when it was accepted by Mr. Soule. In 1856 he was elected Vice-President under Buchanan, and though the youngest man who had ever held the office, his native dignity, good sense and impartial judgment enabled him to discharge all his duties to the satisfaction of the country. He died May 17th, 1875.

FREDERICK T. FRELINGHUYSEN.

FREDERICK T. FRELINGHUYSEN was born at Millstone, Somerset county, New Jersey, August 4th, 1817. His grandsire, Frederick Frelinghuysen, was a member of the Continental Congress, and resigned his commission to go out and bear arms in defense of his country, and during the Revo-

FREDERICK T. FRELINGHUYSEN.

lutionary war served as captain. In 1793 he was a Senator in Congress. The subject of this sketch is nephew and adopted son of Honorable Theodore Frelinghuysen, who was United States Senator from 1829 to 1835, and was also the candidate of the Whig party for the Presidency in 1844. Frederick T. Frelinghuysen graduated at Rutger College, where he had distinguished himself for brilliant scholarship and indefatigable industry. Upon leaving school he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1839. In 1861 he was appointed Attorney General of his native State, and upon the expiration of his term was reappointed. The death of the well known and lamented Hon. William Wright occasioned a vacancy in Congress which Mr. Frelinghuysen was appointed by the governor to fill. Giving universal satisfaction by his honorable course, he was re-elected by the people. He served on the Committee on Judiciary, and also on the Committees on Naval Affairs and Claims, in all of which he was one of the leading spirits. He denounced the course of President Johnson in the most unqualified manner, and in the impeachment trial declared him guilty of high misdemeanor in "willful and defiant disregard of law," and in a long and powerful speech asserted that to permit such a proceeding on the part of the Executive was to suffer the destruction of the government. In reconstruction, his generous and patriotic heart seconded every effort which could be honorably made to restore peace to the war-stricken country; and his sympathies for the South were keen and active. His term in the Senate ended March 4th. 1869, and though short, was productive of good, alike creditable to himself and the State he represented so ably and honorably.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD was born in Florida, Orange county, New York, in 1820. His ancestors were Welch on his father's, and Irish on his mother's side, and settled in the New World at an early date in its history. At nine

years of age he was sent to the academy at Goshen, and at fifteen to the Union College, from which he graduated; afterwards he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1822, and the next year he entered into partnership with Judge Miller, of Auburn. In 1828 he was tendered the nomination to Congress but declined it, and two years later he was sent to the State Senate. In 1834 he was nominated for Governor of the State but lost the election, and in 1838 was renominated and elected by a very large majority. In 1849 Mr. Seward was sent to the United States Senate and remained in that body until Mr. Lincoln's election, when he was offered the position of Secretary of State in the cabinet, which he accepted and held during Mr. Lincoln's administration. Mr. Seward was looked upon as one of the most able men in Congress, though no orator, and not a man who wins friends as did a host of our statesmen—indeed, pure, personal friends he had few, but admirers and supporters he had many. He lacked utterly that magnetic power which controlled the feelings and sympathies of the masses, yet he was for many years the representative man of his party. He died in October, 1872.

JOHN JAY CRITTENDEN.

MR. CRITTENDEN was born in Woodford county, Kentucky. His mother was left a widow while he was a child, and with but scanty means for their support. He was, in a great measure, self-educated, and early chose the profession of law, which he commenced at Hopkinville, from whence he removed to Frankfort, where he soon won a reputation and a fine practice.

In 1816 he was chosen representative in the State legislature, and was nominated Judge of the Supreme Court of the United

States by J. Q. Adams, then President. In 1835 he was chosen United States Senator, served a full term, was re-elected, but resigned in 1841 the post of Attorney-General under President Harrison. In the fall of the same year, with every member of the cabinet, except Webster, he withdrew, sending a kind, courteous, and respectful letter of resignation to President Tyler, and was at once chosen Senator in Mr. Clay's place, that gentleman having resigned after the passage of the tariff bill, and was re-elected in 1843 for another full term. In 1818 he was elected Governor of Kentucky, a measure which gave great satisfaction. He was in Mr. Fillmore's cabinet during his term of office, and was again nominated for the Senate for the term ending 1861.

He has always favored the protective policy, voting for the tariff of 1842, and against that of 1846. In 1835 he opposed Mr. Calhoun's bill empowering postmasters to take from the mails documents hostile to slavery. He opposed the annexation of Texas as unwise, unnecessary and unconstitutional, and strove to bring our difficulties with Mexico to a peaceful termination. He also opposed the admission of Kansas under the Topeka Constitution, and in favor of it under Mr. Toombs' bill, and again against it under the Lecompton Constitution, which he pronounced a fraud and contrary to the wishes of a majority of the people. His speech on this subject carried great weight with it, not only from the high position he held, but from his age, and as being the representative of Kentucky. Throughout all the bitter debates, and the daily wrangles over Kansas, Mr. Crittenden never forgot his dignity as a Senator, or indulged, even in the hight of debate, in language unbecoming either his position or himself. He was highly esteemed, both in the councils of State and Senate, and was a fine extemporaneous debater.

It is peculiarly pleasant to us now to refer to Mr. Crittenden's course during the war of 1861. Having exhausted his ingenuity to propose or suggest some pacific measure which might heal the wounds and prevent the outbreak, the very thought of which brought pain to his loyal heart, he took his seat in the United States House of Representatives as a member from Kentucky, in the extra session of July, 1861, took part in the debates and work which came up, not as an avowed partisan of the administration, but as something more honorable—as a firm adherent to the gov-

ernment, as one whose nobility of soul, strength and honesty of purpose, and unquestionable patriotism made him superior to party and above prejudice, a man who was so true to the constitution—so true to the Union—as to be ready to sacrifice personal feeling for their preservation. It was during this session that in one of his most eloquent speeches he exclaimed, "Party! *party!!* PARTY!!! in an hour like *this*. *Party!* when the government is being tossed at the mercy of the storm, and any moment may see the Union a wreck. Perish party forever from the green footstool of God, if for it a government like ours must be sacrificed, or for one moment its safety be jeopardized!" And a few weeks before his death he reiterated his firm purpose in these words: "In defeat or victory, my intention is to stand by and maintain the government." He died at his home in Frankfort, Kentucky, July 26, 1863.

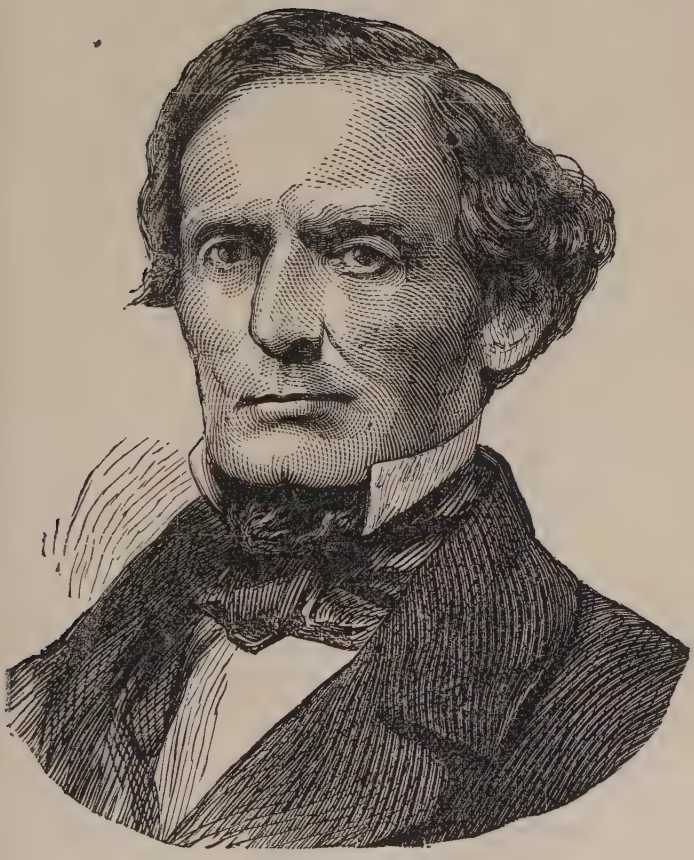
ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS was born February 11, 1812, in Crawfordville, Ga., and losing both parents, one in his infancy, the other when ten years old, was reared and educated mostly by his uncle, Aaron Grier. At one time he was strongly inclined to study for the ministry, but later he chose law, and was admitted to the bar in 1834, when twenty-two years of age. He rapidly acquired a fine reputation; indeed, his first case, which he gained against the celebrated Mr. Jeffreys, gave him at once a firm position. His orphan boyhood, his poverty, his struggle for his education and profession, when want and physical suffering battled mightily with the strong will that was, as he said with a grim bitterness, "about all there was of him,"

have marked both the face and character of the man. You read the story in the wistful look of his large, sad eyes, in the sweet and patient mouth—even in the listless, weary droop of the slender shoulders. His birthplace was sold, at his father's death, but he had a love for that spot of earth that has been well nigh the ruling passion of his life, and he set apart the first fruits of his professional labor to redeem it from the hands of strangers. The young neophite had no paltry pettifoggers to oppose him, but those who had tempered their steel with practice, and whose talents, no less than their legal lore, made them able antagonists. At the very beginning of his career he came in contact with men whose social, political, financial and professional positions were already defined and secured; men who are all gone now—men of yesterday, but who made for their names a place in our memory. There were Sayre, and Thomas, and Dawson, and Tombs; these were the men amongst whom the friendless and penniless boy had to make his way—the men amongst whom he *did* make his way right gallantly. In 1836 he was nominated for the General Assembly of his State, and had a most gratifying majority of votes against a bitter and vigorous opposition, arising from the fact of his well-known, openly expressed objection to the doctrine of nullification, then popular with the people, and his objection to the Vigilance Committees which had been appointed in many counties in the State, and proposed in his district, and which were clothed with unlimited and despotic power to arrest and punish, without trial, any persons who might be suspected of tampering with slaves, or circulating amongst them incendiary sentiments. He appealed to the people with an earnestness which he rarely surpassed, "as they valued, prized, and cherished liberty, to stand by the supremacy of the *law*." The measure was defeated, but at a cost, for at once he was charged with being unsound upon the slavery question, and some of his most masterly speeches were made in self-defence.

The life and labors of Mr. Stephens have been presented to the public so often, and are so well known, so thoroughly appreciated and admired, it seems unnecessary to enter into details.

In 1837, Mr. Stephens' health, always delicate, gave way completely, and for the next ten years he was so feeble most of the time as to be unable to walk without support; yet he gave up



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

his work for but one year, when he was compelled to seek relief in travel. In 1839 he was sent to Charleston as delegate to the National Convention, and there met the most distinguished men of the nation. The subject under discussion when Mr. Stephens made his *debut* in the capitol of South Carolina was, the importance to the South of direct communication and trade with Great Britain, and the best mode of calling public attention to it. It may not be generally known that South Carolina and Georgia were *always* opposed to each other in everything, as much so as if it had been a settled principle and policy for them to differ, and this point was no exception. They passed the first clause of the subject readily, but upon the second they failed most signally to agree. Mr. Stephens, then comparatively unknown in his own State, was a stranger here, and when the most eminent men of South Carolina had spoken upon the question, and the opposing party was requested to meet their arguments, the request was made in a manner which clearly denoted that they felt there was not a David on the floor who *dare* meet their Goliath. A moment of silence followed the call, and then it was repeated, while the glow of triumph brightened on the faces of the prematurely complacent Carolinians. At length a stranger arose in one of the boxes, a man with a beardless, boyish face, with mournful, deep set eyes, around which pain had traced deep lines—a man who was slender and stooping, who clung to the box as if for support, and whose general appearance, as he glanced over the assembly, brought forth a smile of pitying contempt. But, says that magnificent writer, John Savage, "The hour and the man had come, and no one who heard that speech delivered, ever forgot it. His voice was soft and rich and penetrating, and scarcely had he commenced when every head was raised, and every eye was fixed in wonder. The contrast between his physical delicacy and his intellectual strength, between his masculine thoughts and melodious intonations, produced the greatest astonishment, and this in turn changed into intense admiration of his quick wit, his keen powers of analyzation, and his overwhelming replies. It was a bold proceeding in a stranger, to measure swords with such antagonists as he met there, but it was a still more memorable exploit to obtain, as he did, the victory over them in argument. The speech, in which he snatched their laurels from the most brilliant states-

men present, was the wonder of the day, and the topic of eulogy; and he, modest and quiet, was the observed of all observers."

In 1843 he was nominated for Congress, and it was in this campaign that he met and spoke in opposition to Judge Colquitt, the eminent candidate of the Whig party. He was elected, and then was compelled to contest for his seat in the Senate, on some trifling quibble, persistently brought forward by his opponent, and stoutly maintained for some time. Mr. Stephens opposed the Mexican war, believing it unwise, unconstitutional, and that it had been brought forward by President Polk to advance personal interests. In 1850 he threw all his strength against the secession movement made in the South on account of the admission of California. In the fall of that year he traveled over the land, everywhere making the most eloquent appeals—*successful* ones, too—to the people, to stand firm for the Union. In 1848 he gave the nomination of General Taylor his cordial support, but when the General's policy met his disapproval, he stated it frankly, as his country's friend should do. Mr. Buchanan's turn came, and though not his choice, and his heart misgave him, he voted for him. The quarrel of the President with Judge Douglas he considered most unwise,—not only impolitic and unjust, but dangerous. He foresaw that if Mr. Buchanan persisted in his course, a disruption of the party at the Charleston Convention was almost certain, and that a national convulsion must follow. Mr. Stephens again retired from political life, for the reason, as he dryly remarked, that "if he sees that the engineer is reckless, and a smash up ahead, he gets off at the first station."

In 1855 Mr. Stephens again stood before the public in the position of antagonist to the most gigantic and unconstitutional piece of injustice ever attempted by Americans—the Know-Nothing movement—which seemed, so silent had been its operations, to spring into life like Venus from the wave, full grown at birth. Henry A. Wise, of Virginia, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, rallying to the defence, flung out the stripes above the heads of the adopted children of our land, and pointed to the Constitution, which gives all our citizens equal rights.

When the campaign of 1860 called the people again to choose a President, Mr. Stephens was very ill—as himself and every one believed, ready to die—but the great pulsation of the nation's

heart throbbed against his own, and the "impending crisis" roused him into new life, and he went out once more at the call of his country to battle for the Union. His speech in Columbus, Ga., was one of the grandest efforts of his life, and so far was his audience carried by the force of eloquence, that when he called upon them to stand by the Constitution in any or every event, the audience rose in a mass to their feet, and their enthusiasm was uncontrollable. He voted and labored for Stephen A. Douglas, and worked for him with a will and an energy worthy of the object, and when the final and dreadful ending came, he wrought, with an almost frantic desperation, for the cause so dear to him; and through the terrible storm that swept over our land he was as loyal to the Union as ever was needle to the magnet; through the darkness of the night, when the clouds hid the future from less discerning eyes than his own, he saw the rock where dimly burned, like evening vesper star, the light that would guide us safely through the storm, and by that light,—

"Aye, thrill,
Ye pulses, standing still with shame,"

he read the words of the *Constitution*, on whose soundless depths, as on some land-locked harbor, rode safely our noble Union, late washed by waves of blood, torn by contending principles, wept over by Justice and Mercy, but now saved to her worshiping sons; and turning from the vision which to his prophetic and longing soul was the very gate of Heaven, he waited till the whirlwind passed by, then, like the Samaritan of old, gave himself to the work of healing the wounds that came of strife.

It is not strange that Mr. Stephens accepted the position of Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy, for, though he long opposed secession, pronounced it a "wrong and an actual crime," he yielded at last to the demand of Georgia, and became the second officer of the new government, but was a most convincing proof of the truth of the old proverb, that

"A man convinced against his will,
Is of the same opinion still,"

and he declared, both then and after, that he filled the position only in the hope that he might be of use to the country, and that sometime his counsels might prevail.

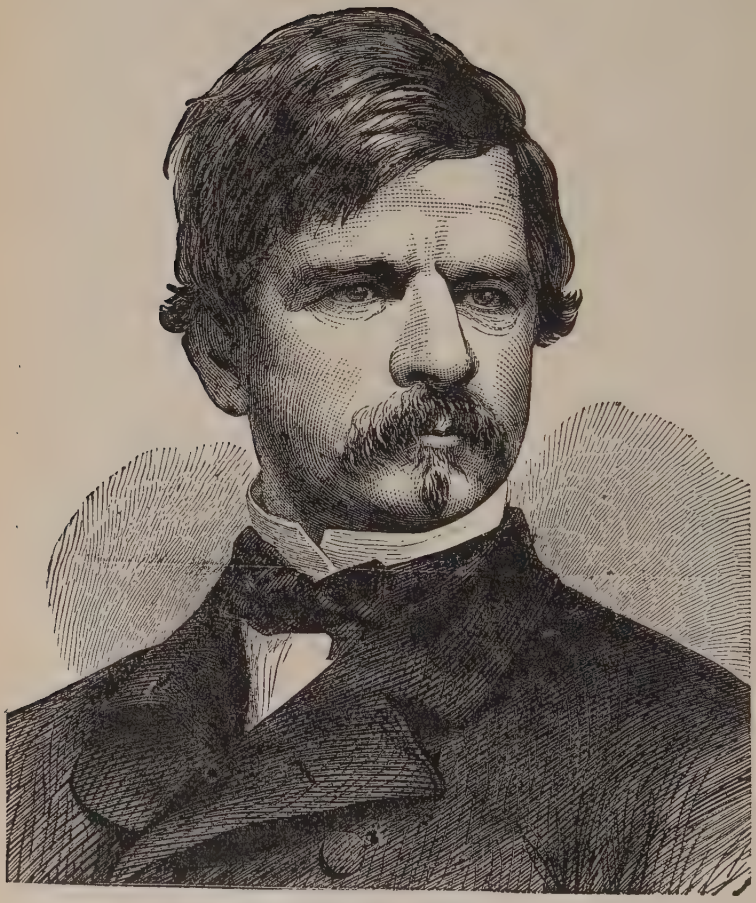
His faith in the restoration policy of Mr. Lincoln he expressed in no equivocal terms, and he declared in all his speeches that "the whole United States is our country, to be cherished and defended as such by all our hearts and all our arms."

Mr. Stephens' letters and speeches, so far as made public, are well worthy of perusal, and whether read for their literary or political merits, are equally interesting to scholar or politician. His character is symmetrical, polished, beautiful, either as that of a statesman, a patriot, or a Christian gentleman. His biographer says of him,—

"At the first, he was a poor orphan; then, successful lawyer; champion of education; advocate of a great railroad; protector of the weak against the strong, righting wrong and securing justice; benefactor of the poor; faithful ever to the home and graves of his sires; laying aside the robes of office from choice, while in the noon of power; an ardent defender of the Union, as well as devotee of the doctrines of State rights of the school of Jefferson and Madison; ministering spirit at the hospitals and caring for captive enemies as for brethren. Then, a State prisoner, and afterward a Senator elect, dedicating his matchless eloquence again to harmony, wisdom, peace, and Union; hero of civil triumphs and bloodless battles; Christian gentleman and patriot statesman; in a word—Alexander Hamilton Stephens."

HENRY CLAY.

ONE of the most distinguished of our southern statesmen was Henry Clay, who bore in youth the soubriquet of the "Mill Boy of the Slashes." His father was a clergyman, but in so poor circumstances as only to allow a very meager education to his son, who, as soon as his attainments would permit,



NATHANIEL P. BANKS,

was put as a copyist in the office of the Court of Chancery in Richmond. With a strong desire for a better education, and with a dim, undefined consciousness of the power that would one day be developed in him, he commenced the study of law at the age of nineteen, and so rapidly did he progress that he was admitted to the bar in the course of the year. In 1797 he commenced the practice of law in Lexington, Kentucky, which was henceforth to be his home. He took a lively interest in politics, and when a convention was called for a revision of the Constitution of Kentucky, the youthful politician rendered himself remarkable for his efforts towards the election of such delegates as were in favor of emancipation of the slaves. Of course this could but be unpopular, and he fearfully hazarded his position by it, but his after course, especially in regard to the alien laws, gave great satisfaction and soon made him a general political favorite. In 1803 he was elected a member of the legislature by a large majority, where his natural powers of eloquence and argumentative ability won him the highest rank. He was chosen, in 1806, to fill the vacancy in the Senate caused by the resignation of General Adair. He was again appointed to the Senate in 1839, when the character of the nation was undergoing a formative process. The problem, whether Federal or Democratic principles should obtain the predominance, was hastening to a solution. The country was ready and waiting for the coming of the man who had the self-centered strength to mark out and fix its subsequent policy. Mr. Clay's term in the Senate lasted but two years, when he returned to Lexington, but already he had established himself in the hearts of the people, and Kentucky could not dispense with services so fitted for public life and legislation, and he was immediately elected to a seat in the House of Representatives; and so conspicuous had his talents already made him, so great was his popularity, that he was at once made Speaker of the House. This could but have been a proud moment in the life of Clay. Owing nothing to birth, nothing to education, nothing to outward circumstances, or to the influence of friends, he was in a position to receive the willing homage of those who could boast of all, and the torrent of applause which greeted the announcement of his election revealed how strong was the love of the enthusiastic crowd of friends who would rally to his support, even as now they had rallied to make his entrance

amongst them a triumph. Meantime arose the difficulty between the United States and England, in 1812, in which Clay took so active a part as to be charged by some historians with having been the principal instigator of it. The gloom which overspread the nation, however, soon passed away, and England, who had been so exultant, was made to lower her tone of insolent superiority, and Clay was chosen one of the negotiators of peace. He returned from Europe with his laurels undimmed, having proven himself as skillful a diplomatist as he was eloquent as an orator, or able as a debater.

Upon his return he was elected to Congress, and took his seat in 1815, and was again chosen speaker. President Madison offered him the position of Minister to Russia; again, upon a vacancy in his cabinet, the Secretaryship of War. Honors poured in upon the rising statesman from every quarter, but believing he could serve his country best in her halls of legislation, he declined every offer. He identified himself with the tariff question in 1819–20, and became the acknowledged champion of domestic industry by his resolute advocacy of protective duties. He was also an active agent in the adjustment of the Missouri Compromise, and in other subjects of national interest.

In 1834 President Jackson's characteristic rashness would have plunged us into a war with France. In the treaty of 1831 France had pledged herself to pay the United States twenty-five million of francs for aggressions made by that power upon our commerce during the wars in which she was engaged from 1800 to 1817. The money was not promptly paid, and Jackson recommended reprisals upon French property. A war would, of course, have been the result of so desperate a step, and in this extremity Mr. Clay stepped in to avert so great a calamity, for at that time we could ill afford it. As Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, he reported a resolution to the effect that it was inexpedient, at that time, to pass any law vesting in the President authority for making reprisals upon French property, or upon the property of any foreign power, in the emergency of provision not being made for the payment to the United States of the indemnity stipulated by the treaty of 1813. At that time, one like Clay, of indomitable courage and Roman firmness, was needed in the Senate to curb the headstrong rashness of the executive. Per-

haps the times demanded a President with the boldness and inflexible will of Jackson, at the same time that it brought upon us danger which we desired to avert, not by compromise of our nation's honor, but by diplomacy, not even by willful or feigned blindness to that which we could afford to see at another time.

Mr. Clay was no less distinguished for his generosity and philanthropy than for other noble qualities. The oppressed instinctively looked to him for redress, and he was the eloquent and impassioned advocate of the wronged and the down-trodden. His position for years was one of conflict, when identifying himself often with the weakest party, he was obliged to stand forever on the defensive. In 1834 the Senate had adopted measures of censure against President Jackson, and in the following year Mr. Benton sought to have them expunged. The Senate refused, by an immense majority; but two or three years after it was brought up, and time had made such changes that now there seemed to be a prospect of success; but Mr. Clay came forward to battle against odds as bravely, and with the same undaunted spirit with which three years before he had hailed the assurance of victory. His speeches before the Senate at that time were full of the bitterest sarcasm and most scathing irony, and the hot indignation of the man was poured out in a burning but eloquent and irresistible tide of invectives against what he denounced as the mean condescension, the groveling sycophancy, the self-degradation, and self-abasement of those who sought to expunge from the nation's archives by a few black lines that which *he* (the President) had not thought it worth *his while* to expunge from the nation's hearts by later acts. One paragraph, or portion of a speech will be a sample of the burning, impetuous, eloquent indignation which he felt and expressed so ably. It was after the wily stratagems of the other party had brought them the victory which he considered disgraceful to the Senate, that the defeated lion of the Whig party stood at bay and exclaimed, while his eyes flashed and his lips whitened with anger: "But why should I detain the Senate, or needlessly waste my breath in fruitless exertions? The decree has gone forth, and it is one of urgency, too. The deed is to be done—that foul deed, like the blood-stained hands of the guilty Macbeth, all ocean's waters will never wash out. Proceed then to the noble work that is before you, and like other executioners, do

it quickly; and when you have perpetrated it, go home to the people and tell them what honors you have achieved for our common country. Tell them you have extinguished one of the brightest and purest lights that ever burned on the altar of civil liberty. Tell them that you have silenced one of the noblest batteries that ever thundered in defense of the constitution, and bravely spiked the guns. Tell them that, henceforth, no matter what daring or outrageous act any president may perform, you have forever hermetically sealed the mouth of the Senate. Tell them that he may fearlessly assume any power he chooses—snatch from its custody the public purse, command a military detachment to enter the halls of the capitol, overawe Congress, trample down the constitution and raze every bulwark of freedom, and the Senate must stand mute in silent submission—and never, now or hereafter, dare to raise its opposing voice. That it must wait until a House of Representatives, humbled and saddened like itself, and a majority of it composed of partisans of the president, shall prefer articles of impeachment—*then*, not *till* then, may it dare to think, or act. Tell them, finally, that you have restored the glorious doctrine of passive obedience, and non-resistance, and if the people do not pour out their indignation and imprecations, I have yet to learn the character of the American freemen."

Seldom has our country been the scene of such enthusiasm as that which characterized the presidential campaign of 1840. The interests of the country, owing to the success of the banking and sub-treasury scheme, were at the lowest stage of depression, and in a change of policy the people fondly hoped to see business interests revive. The twelve years of worship which they had given to the hero of New Orleans had not been productive of the desired effects, and the expected blessings had not come at the call of the anxiously awaiting people; and now, weary with this state of affairs, they rose with a unanimous movement and demanded other laws and another policy. It was expected, when the convention met at Harrisburg, that Henry Clay would be their choice, but with a blind fanaticism they still desired to be ruled by a military chieftain, and General Harrison received the nomination. All that was noblest in the character of Henry Clay shone bright in this defeat, as, nobly putting aside every personal consideration, he hid, even from himself, his bitter disappointment. and devoted

all his strength and influence to the success of the rival candidate. Harrison was borne into power with an overwhelming majority, but he did not live long to enjoy this crowning honor; he died in one month from the time of his inauguration, and Vice President Tyler took his place at the head of the nation.

In 1844 he was nominated for the Presidency in opposition to James K. Polk, the Democratic candidate, and again defeated, even when his party had not thought such a thing possible. The Kentucky electors, who not only with justifiable pride as a statesman and legislator, but with affection as a public benefactor and friend, immediately waited upon him to tender him their heartfelt regrets for his defeat. Mr. Clay was evidently deeply disappointed, but he bore his disappointment nobly. Again he put aside all thoughts of self, and in his anxiety for the welfare of the country he loved, as a mother loves her wayward child even more tenderly and with deeper solicitude for every pain he costs her, so he waited and worked, and prayed that all might be well.

The annexation of Texas was followed, as he had predicted, by war with Mexico, which was soon subdued by American arms, and once more the people desired him for their ruler, and once more the eyes of the masses were dazzled by the epaulets and laurels of Taylor. Fresh from the fields which he had won, and with all the glory, half fictitious though it was, of having trod, as a conqueror, the "Halls of the Montezumas," he was chosen Chief Executive. Twenty years of reverses had not soured or embittered his disposition, neither had injustice, detraction, or blasted hopes made him a hater of his kind. He was the same ardent and unselfish patriot that he had ever been; and when Kentucky, believing that he was needed now, if ever, in the legislative councils, offered him a seat in the United States Senate, though aged and toil-worn, he accepted the responsibility without one moment's hesitation. It was indeed a time when the country had need of its truest son, for the question of slavery, always a dangerous and fearful one, presented itself with more than its usual terrors. Mr. Clay offered measures of compromise between the North and South, and as he appeared upon the Senate floor, he seemed to regain something of his youthful vigor. His wan cheek glowed again with the flush of excitement, and his eye flashed with the old light before which his adversaries had so often

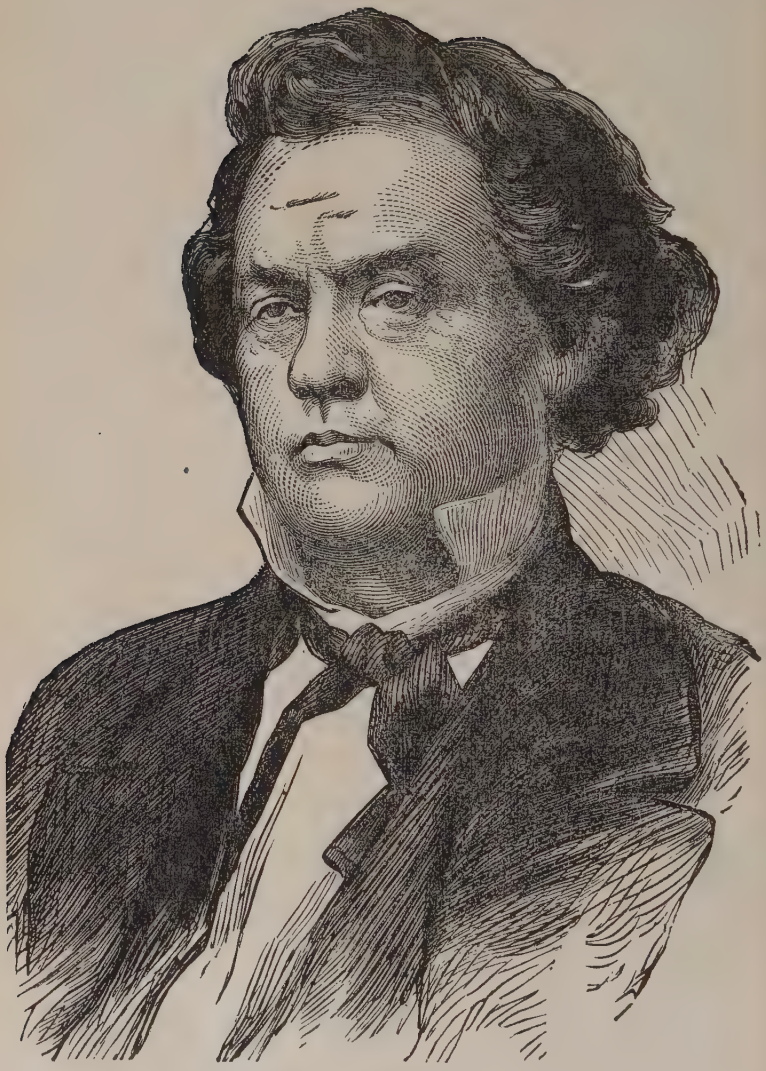
quailed; while his voice grew soft and mellow—the same seductive tones that had the power to disarm anger. To those who spurned the idea of compromise he exclaimed, "There are those who are very wise in their own esteem, and who will reject the idea of compromise, but that is no reason why compromise should not be attempted. I go for honorable compromise when occasion demands it. Life itself is but a compromise, until the great destroyer finally triumphs. All legislation—all government—all society is formed upon the principle of mutual compromise—concession, politeness, courtesy—upon these everything is based. Compromise is particularly appropriate between members of a republic, as of a common family. Compromises have this recommendation—that if you concede anything, you have something conceded to you in return. Treaties are but compromises made with foreign powers, which is not a case like this. Here, if you concede anything, it is to your own family—your own brethren. Let him who elevates himself above humanity, with its weaknesses, its wants, its necessities, say, if he will, that *he* never will compromise; but let no one who is not above the frailties of our common nature, disdain compromises."

The debate was continued through many months, and the excitement became intense, both in Congress and amongst the people, and Mr. Clay, disregarding the weakness of age, and the pains of disease, battered on to effect a reconciliation of the opposite principles of the North and the South. Mr. Foot, of Mississippi, and Mr. Bell, of Tennessee, had aided him, presenting each a set of compromise resolutions, which were not favored by the executive, but during the continuance of the agitation, Mr. Taylor died, and Mr. Fillmore was understood to look upon the measure with more leniency, and when, on the thirty-first of July a bill passed entering Utah as a free territory, ignoring the existence, *for a time*, of any other bills, he felt that the day of his triumph was at hand—for his far-seeing eye told him that the Senate did not come to this work without having made up their minds to carry out, separately, every one of the three bills. The irresistible influence of Mr. Clay, so long and so well sustained, had successfully combatted faction in all its forms, and converted opposition into reluctant auxiliary. But the eloquent statesman had combatted error for the last time—the great chieftain had

fought his last battle. He had passed the three-score and ten allotted to human life, and as spring advanced he sank rapidly. Yet even now, his sympathies were warm and quick. The people were running wild over Kossuth, and the greatest interest was felt in that oppressed country. The eloquent and fascinating Hungarian had nearly upset the neutrality policy of our government. The voice which had been lifted so often in behalf of South American independence and the struggling Greeks, was now heard in friendly remonstrance. The dying statesman admitted the enthusiastic Hungarian to an interview. He addressed him with his usual courtesy, and in terms of the highest compliment, but protested against the policy which had been recommended to our people, and demonstrated its impracticability. This was his last service to his country. After this he sank speedily, and intelligence was received daily with mournful interest. The calamity came at last. On the twenty-ninth of June, 1852, it was announced in the Senate Chamber that Henry Clay was no more.

ROBERT TOOMBS.

ROBERT TOOMBS was born in Washington county, Ga., July 2, 1810. received a partial education in Georgia, but completed his studies in Schenectady, N. Y., graduating there in 1828. His law course was taken at the University of Virginia, and he began his professional life in his native town. He served under General Scott as captain of a volunteer company in the Creek war, and was a dashing and gallant soldier, who feared nothing on earth—always ready for a skirmish or a frolic. In 1837 he was elected to the State Legislature, and continued a member of the lower house until 1845. In that year he was elected to the Federal House of Representatives, remaining in



ROBERT TOOMBS.

that body until 1853, and was then sent to the United States Senate and served his term, giving such satisfaction to his constituents, that he was renominated and returned. He served on a number of prominent committees, where his fine executive abilities won him the respect and admiration of his associates. He was from the first a member of the extreme Southern party, and strong in his political convictions. After Mr. Lincoln's election, he threw all his strength and influence with the party of his choice. He opposed Alexander Stephens, and at Milledgeville made, in answer to him, November 15, 1860, one of the most brilliant campaign speeches ever listened to.

On January 19th, 1861, Georgia passed the secession ordinance, and Mr. Toombs withdrew from the United States Senate, and became a member of the Confederate Congress. When Jefferson Davis was elected President of the Southern Confederacy, he appointed Mr. Toombs his Secretary of State, and in September of the same year he resigned his office, and it was filled by Robert Hunter, of Virginia. He was better known than many of our Southern statesmen, partly by his brilliant oratory, his impulsive, impetuous eloquence that flashed and blazed out like the swift lightning from the heaped up banks of inky clouds that lie against the horizon of the tropical skies; and by the burning, scathing words that rushed in resistless torrents, like molten lava from the bosom of Vesuvius, and won for this fervid son of the South the *soubriquet* of the "Georgia Fire Eater." Mr. Toombs belonged to the Whig party when first he entered political life, but afterwards became a Democrat.

THOMAS A. HENDRICKS.

THOMAS A. HENDRICKS.

THOMAS A. HENDRICKS was born in Muskingum county, Ohio, September 7th, 1819. He studied law in Pennsylvania and was admitted to the bar in Chambersburg, after which he settled and practiced his profession in Indiana. In 1850 he was a member of the convention to amend the State Constitution, and in 1851 he was Representative from Indiana and served in Congress two years with marked ability. Mr. Hendricks was appointed by President Pierce Commissioner of the General Land Office, and during the four years he held the position, *eighty* million acres were sold. In 1860 Mr. Hendricks was the Democratic candidate for Governor of Indiana, but was defeated, and two years later was elected by his party to the United States Senate. In 1868 his was prominent among the names in the New York Convention for the Presidency, and had the party decided upon him to lead in the ensuing campaign he would have been a leader worthy of them. His name was upon the ticket of this campaign for Governor of Indiana, and a second time he was defeated for the position. Mr. Hendricks is one of the most able and popular men in the Democratic party. He is as much marked for the gracefulness of his oratory as for his eloquence, and his audience never weary of listening, while his politeness and good humor in debate make him a general favorite. His speech on the Supplementary Reconstruction Bill was one of his most masterly efforts. Said he, "What objection have you to the Constitutions of the Southern States as amended by the people? For two years you have kept those States out of the Union, so far as representation was concerned; for two years trade, commerce, or business have been afraid to put out their hand, or capital to trust to any enterprise, and the spirit of confidence and harmony have been passing away from both sections of the country because of the strife thus kept up. For what have you done it, and what end have you attained? * * A republican form of government is one in

which the people make their own laws through legislators selected by *themselves*—execute their laws through legislators chosen by *themselves*—and administer law through *their own* courts. * * * * Yet what have you done under a constitution that guarantees to the State a republican form of government?"

There is no question but that his enthusiasm, beautiful as it was, and seductive as was the eloquence with which he urged the claims of the South, was the honest sentiment of a heart that bled over the misery that war had occasioned, and his ready sympathy had a counterpart in many a noble heart that put aside every consideration but loyalty to the Union and the future welfare of our beloved country.

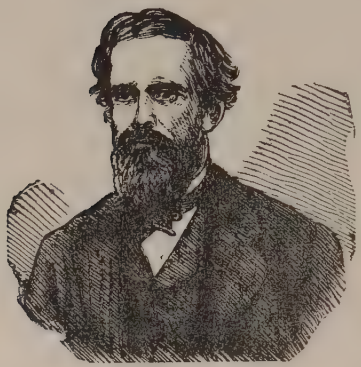
He was Elected Govenor of Indiana in 1873.

THIERS.

PRESIDENT THIERS was born at Marseilles on the 16th of April, 1797, his father, who was a dealer in clothes, having been ruined by the Revolution. From 1806 to 1814 he studied at the Seminary in that city, thanks to the aid of the Chenier family, relatives of his mother. From 1815 to 1820 he studied law at Aix, and went to Paris in 1821. Between 1822 and 1829 he wrote successively, articles for the *Constitutionnel*, an opposition paper then very successful; a volume of art-criticisms called "The Exhibition of 1822;" "Historical Tablets," written jointly with Jouffroy, Mignet, and Remusat, and his "History of the Revolution."

After the revolution of 1830 he became Counsellor of State, and Secretary General of the Department of Finances, under the celebrated Baron Louis, of whom Mr. Thiers always speaks as his teacher in financial matters. In 1831 he defended the hereditary Peership, in the Chamber of Peers; and, in 1832, having become

Minister of the Interior, he caused the arrest of the Duchess de Berry, during her famous insurrection in *la Vendee*. From 1832 to 1834, having left the Interior Department, he took charge of that of Commerce and Public Works; returning to the former in 1834, and marching personally against the barricades and rioters who appeared in Paris at that time. In 1836, he resigned; but, a month later, he was President of the Council of Ministers and in charge of the Foreign Affairs Office, where he was succeeded by Count Mole in August, 1836. In 1837, he made a trip to Italy, where he created quite a sensation as a liberal patron of art and a liberal Minister. In 1840, as a result of the famous Thiers Guizot coalition, he became Minister of Foreign Affairs and President of the Council, and caused the construction of the fortifications of Paris. At the close of the year he resigned, and traveled in Italy, Spain, Germany and England, until 1845. In 1848, he was Minister for one day, on the eve of the Revolution; and, at the close of the year was elected to the Constitutional Assembly by four Departments. At the *coup d'etat* of 1851 he was arrested and sent to the frontier. In 1852 he returned to France. In 1863 he was elected by Paris to the *Corps Legislatif*, and was re-elected in 1869. He was chosen a member of the French Academy in 1833, in the place of Andrieux. In 1847 he published his History of the Consulship and the Empire, which he finished during the reign of Napoleon the Third. His life from 1870 till now is well known.



GEORGE S. BOUTWELL.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, January 28th, 1818. When seventeen years of age he went to Groton and commenced business as clerk in a store. At nineteen he appeared first as a lecturer before the public in the Groton Lyceum. At the age of twenty-one he was nominated by the Democratic party for the legislature, but lost the election. Three years later he was again candidate, and being elected, was continued in the office seven successive years. In 1851 he was elected Governor of Massachusetts and held the office two terms. In 1853 he separated from the Democratic party and became a leader of the Republicans in Massachusetts. In 1861 he was a member of the Peace Congress, was the first Commissioner of Internal Revenue and organized the revenue system of the United States.

He was elected a Representative in Congress and took his seat in March, 1863. He was appointed a member of the Judiciary Committee, and continued on it, and also on the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. At the close of the war he was one of the first advocates of negro suffrage. As a manager of the Impeachment Trial before the Senate, his honest sincerity and eloquence attracted the attention and admiration of the whole country. Mr.

Boutwell had just taken his seat in the Forty-first Congress when he was called by President Grant to take a seat in his cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Boutwell entered upon his duties under many difficulties, and though he pursued a new policy, the practical results of which was doubted by some, the national debt was reduced more than twenty million dollars during his first three months in office. There is no question of Mr. Boutwell's honesty, or of his integrity, while his ability, force of character, vigorous powers and habits of thought, together with an attractive, kindly manner, make him a general favorite and a trusted statesman.

ZACHARIAH CHANDLER.

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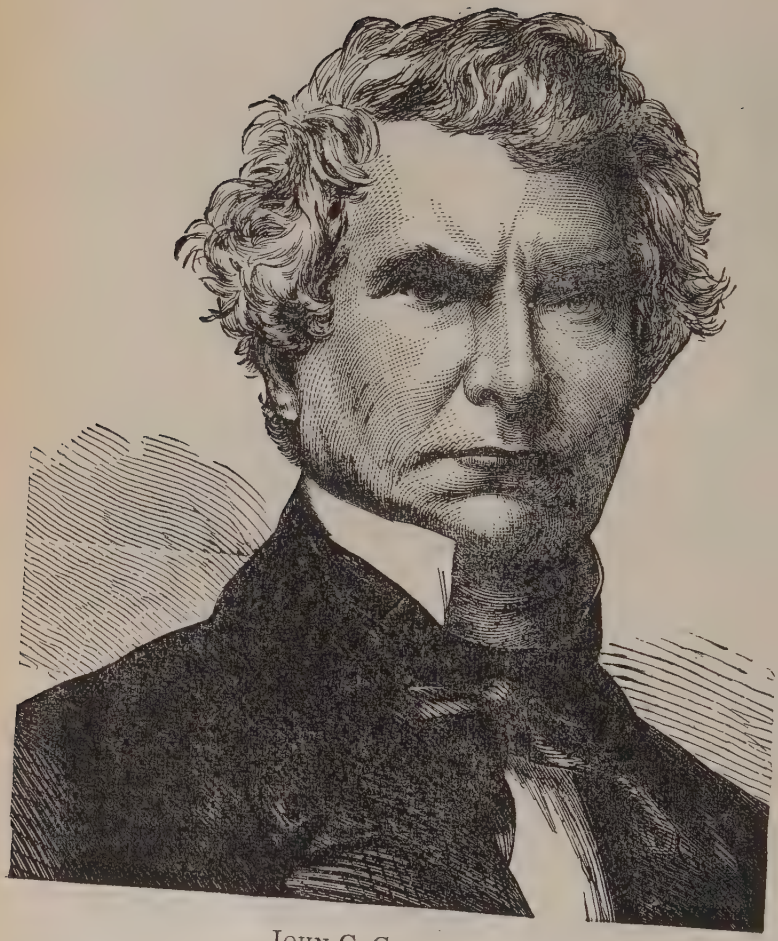
ZACHARIAH CHANDLER was born in Bedford, N. H., December 10, 1813. He received a good education, and at the age of twenty-two went to Detroit, Mich., engaged in mercantile business, and as the town, then small, increased in size, so also did his business, until he was one of the heaviest wholesale dry goods merchants in the State. He was a whig in politics, so far at least as he was a politician, which was not to any great extent, and he never sought political honors. He was elected Mayor of Detroit in 1851, and in the following year was nominated for Governor of the State, but his fine sense of honor forbade his silence upon what seemed to him vital points of interest to the nation, and he gave his views so plainly and independently as to offend the party in power, and lost the election. In 1856 he was elected to the United States Senate for six years, and during that term was identified with all the leading movements of the day: for a general system of internal improvements, for preventing the further increase of slave territory, and for the suppression of the vices and corruption which disgraced the nation.

One of our finest critics writes of him: "The country does not know how much it owes to his Roman firmness. The people have become too much accustomed to regard him as one of the fortresses of their liberties, which no artillery could breach, and whose parapet no storming column could ever reach, that they have never given themselves a thought as to the disastrous consequences which might have followed had he spoken or voted differently from what he did. When did he ever pander to position, or complain of being unappreciated by his party? Yet no man ever did braver work for a party, and got less consideration than he."

In the rebellion he advocated prompt and energetic measures, not half-way action. He was prompt and efficient in promoting the welfare of the soldiers, and in bringing about an honorable peace.



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

JOHN C. CALHOUN.

THE subject of this sketch was born in Abbeville District, South Carolina, March 18th, 1782, and the luster of his name, which was never clouded or dimmed or disgraced, lent to the glory of the State that gave him birth, that he loved so well, and served so faithfully. His father was the first member elected to the Provincial legislature from the interior of the State, and of this body and the State legislature, he continued a member for thirty years, with the intermission of a single term, and held the office at the time of his death.

At Yale College young Calhoun distinguished himself for breadth of intellect and for his precocious sagacity, and the learned Dr. Dwight, president of the College, with whom he had frequent discussions, was astonished at his depth of thought and power of eloquence, and unequivocally predicted the future of his pupil. He remarked to a friend, "That young man has talents enough to be President of the United States." A high compliment in that day, but which, with the experience that later years has brought us, we are justified in questioning, and we defend our own skepticism and turn wistful eyes backward over time as we cry, "Oh, for the days when men like Calhoun dared to

'Beard the lion in his lair,
The Douglas in his halls!'"

When fame's fingers had already begun to weave laurels for his brow, as he stepped forth to meet a Randolph of Roanoke, and in answer to that powerful antagonist, threw back, with fiery impetuosity, concentrated bitterness, and scathing scorn, in the true spirit of the proud sons of the South, the taunts and sneers with which he had been met in the legislature by him.

Those who knew Randolph, and knew how haughty and imperious was his nature, can perhaps imagine his astonishment and rage, when this stripling stepped forth, as confidently as did David to meet Goliath, and exclaimed, in answer to Randolph's pro-

posal of conciliatory measures in regard to our "little unpleasantness" with England in 1811, "Sir, I here enter my solemn protest against this low and calculating avarice entering this hall of legislation. It is only fit for shops and counting houses; and ought not to disgrace the seat of sovereignty by its squalid and vile appearance. Whenever it touches sovereign power, the nation is ruined. It is too short-sighted to defend itself. It is an unpromising spirit, always ready to yield a part and save the balance. It is too timid to have in itself the power of self-preservation. It is only safe under the shield of honor. It is unworthy of our national government, unworthy of our nation." Loving the South with a passionate fervor, he was yet a man so clear-sighted as to refuse to gratify her at the expense of principle and honor, hence, when the embargo was greatly relied on in the troubles of 1811, to which we before alluded, and the enthusiastic South applauded the scheme, the young statesman had the hardihood to oppose it in the most energetic manner. Said he, "I object to the restrictive system, because it does not suit the genius of our people or our government. To make the restrictive system effective, requires the most arbitrary laws. England, with the most severe penal statutes, has not been able to exclude prohibited articles, and Napoleon, with all his power and vigilance, was obliged to resort to the most barbarous laws to enforce this continental system. It is unworthy of our principles—alike insulting to them and our constitution."

In 1817 Mr. Calhoun was appointed by Mr. Monroe to the office of Secretary of War. Entering upon his duties under the most adverse circumstances, but everything was forced to yield to his skill and sagacity. He found upward of forty million of dollars of unsettled accounts, which he speedily reduced to three million; and by the economy and exactness of accountability which he introduced into every branch of expenditure under his control, he saved the government many million of dollars. He was twice elected Vice-President of the United States, on which office he conferred a dignity and character every way worthy of the station and of himself.

On the occasion of his being chosen to fill Mr. Haines' seat in the Senate, he met with the most bitter opposition, and on account of his views favoring State Rights, was even threatened with

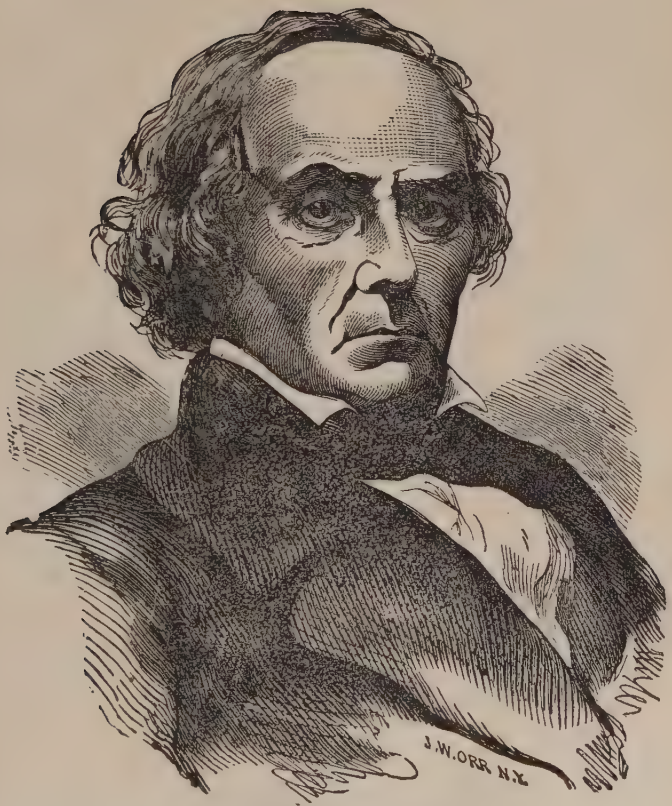
arrest, and it was at this time, when treason reared its head in the high places of the land, that some of his most able and eloquent speeches were made. We only wish it were possible to make room for them upon these pages, or even for lengthy extracts. He has been repeatedly pronounced to be the most profound metaphysician of his age; but in setting him at the head of American orators we design to speak more of his clear-sighted wisdom, of his practical application of illustrations and of the purity and exalted nature of his thoughts, as expressed by his unsurpassed eloquence. He was incontestably superior to any of his cotemporaries in valuable philosophical accomplishments. The condensing power of his mind, the manner in which he not only concentrated, but intensified thought, making a few well chosen words convey a volume of meaning, was unsurpassed by any public man of any age. Said a writer, who was at a loss for words, as we now are, since language seems so incapable of conveying the true quality of a mind like this: "An indignant, fiery purity pervaded Calhoun's phraseology like heat and resistance in glowing steel." Awed and penetrated by his power, we are loth to deal with his character as with those of a more common stamp. No one could listen to him without feeling that his mightiest power is in clear analogies, suppressed emotion, and lofty earnestness. He was far in advance of his age, and his ardent devotion to the liberties of his country, and his jealous watchfulness of her honor and interests, have been mistaken by some for ambition. Ambition he had, but it was high and noble, and never could exist apart from his ambition for his country. His nullification, so much misunderstood and misrepresented, was, with him, a pure and almost holy devotion to the constitution and to the permanent good of the whole Union, according to his understanding of them. The genial goodness, native to his head and heart, is manifest in the spirit of his public conduct. Everywhere he was as full of thought as an ocean is of brine, but there is no bitterness in his written or living speech. His loftiest abstractions are embodied in that good sense, and keen, fine honor, which forbade him to stop in the dark; while he never resorted to the paltry subterfuge of attempting to apparently enlarge an idea by clothing it in a misty, hazy, ambiguous cloud of words which really only bewilder the listener.

We feel the insufficiency of any mind or pen to present to you a correct analysis of this great man, who stood prominent among the men whose great thoughts possess us like a passion, through every limb and the whole heart; whose words haunt us "as eagles haunt the mountain crags"—thoughts which command all coming times and minds, as from a tower a warden. Carefully avoiding all discursiveness of the imagination, his speeches are characterized by a steady pressure to the point. In debate, a rapid, vehement outpouring of thought and sentiment that carried everything before its rushing tide.

From 1831 until 1843 he was in the Senate, and was then appointed Secretary of State; he was again returned to the Senate in 1845, of which body he remained a member until his death, which occurred in 1850, at Washington, after nearly fifty years of steady labor and of unselfish patriotism.

WILLIAM PITT.

WILLIAM PITT was the second born, but eldest living son of Lord Chatham. He was born May 28, 1759. At the age of fourteen he entered Cambridge, where he made rapid progress in his studies, and, as an English historian says of him, became "saturated with knowledge." He had been taught from his childhood, almost from his birth, that he was the hope of the country, and his ambition, naturally strong, was increased and cultivated in every possible way. He was haughty, reserved, cold and proud, a man while yet a boy; indeed, the writer quoted says he never had a boyhood, but that at the age when others are blushing with boyish diffidence, he had the austerity and assurance of a man of the world, taking up its cares and duties as if he had known them a lifetime.



HON. DANIEL WEBSTER.

In January, 1781, he was sent to Parliament from Appleby, and at once threw himself into politics with the spirit of an old debater. He advocated reforms, and all the popular measures of the day, and stood boldly and stoutly for representation of the people. In July, 1782, he was made chancellor of the exchequer, and this, following, as it did, Lord Shelburn's accession to the administration, was equivalent to an invitation to retire from a party who were considered mad to advance in England, or indeed in Europe, a theory so unlikely to succeed, idle as was the dreamer's wildest fancies. His ambition was stronger than his love of reform, and in December, 1783, King George placed young Pitt at the head of the cabinet, and for seventeen years he, more than any other man, ruled the United Kingdom. When first placed in power, it is probable that something of the rose tints with which he had clothed his first love, Reform, yet haunted his vision, for he still talked tenderly of free trade; but the disastrous failure of the French Revolution, whose dedication page was written with the blood of her bravest sons, was a lesson that he was not slow to learn, and henceforth Pitt was the despot of the Parliament, measuring his strength with a boldness that was characteristic of the man, with any or every political power, and his resources seemed inexhaustible. His readiness in debate, and promptness in action, as well as his business capacity, were truly wonderful. Unfortunately he gave himself up to dissipation of every sort, and died of a broken constitution and exhausted vigor, January 23d, 1806.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

THE birthplace of Daniel Webster was Salisbury, Mass., the year, 1782. His father was a farmer, and fought both in the French and Revolutionary wars. Daniel Webster was educated in a school in the wilderness, and fed and grew strong

intellectually on a repast not equal to the crumbs which fall from modern tables. He studied and was admitted to the practice of law in Boston, in 1805; his first practice was in the village of Boscawen, and afterward he removed to Portsmouth, where he struggled awhile with poverty and adversity, was burned out and returned to Boston with the almost hopeless hope of bettering his condition. Now the tide turned, the stranded barque was again lifted to the crest of the wave, and scarcely would it be amiss to wind up with the novelist's oft repeated termination of his romance—"he was prosperous and happy forever after." Poetic justice might be satisfied with this, but in the life of these "Master Spirits of the World," is a lesson too rich to be so easily conned.

Mr. Webster's career in Boston was upward, but he drew himself up the steeps with patient endeavor. For six or eight years he avoided politics, refused to accept office, and devoted himself closely to business. On the 10th of March he made an appeal before the Supreme Court at Washington in behalf of Dartmouth College, and of his efforts it is said: "After his speech was finished there was a perceptible interval before any one seemed willing to break the silence, and not one in that vast crowd doubted that the man who had so moved, controlled, and astonished them had that day vindicated his right to a place at the side of the ablest jurists in the country."

In 1822 he consented to accept a seat as Representative in Congress, and 1826 was chosen to fill a vacancy in the Senate of the United States. It was not as a politician that Mr. Webster made his public life an honorable success, but as an orator, and as "one who loved his fellow men,"—one to whom humanity in any and every phase is dear, and whose whole object and purpose is to elevate it.

His oration at the laying of the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill Monument, before the assembled multitude who stood with uncovered heads, while their feet pressed the turf that had been reddened by the blood of the martyrs who defended it, was one of the most thrilling utbursts of eloquence that ever fell from his lips, and its closing sentences awed the listeners into a silence as if it were a voice from the skies. There was always in his oratory a dignity that amounted to formality and stiffness, and a solemnity that would have been oppressive but for the purity and

beauty of his ideas, and their polish, which, if it made them seem cold, gave them a brilliancy never excelled. One object he had forever in view. It was never lost sight of, no matter how trivial the occasion that called him into action, and that was *moral and intellectual greatness.* It was this, adhered to so persistently, which seemed to lift him above the head of every one with whom he came in contact. It is doubtful if his eloquence lay in speech alone—it was in manner, gesture, look. It was a part of him. He was a most careful speaker, never advancing what he could not substantiate, never raising a pyramid of argument without being sure that the base would support it. He had the power, without the heat of enthusiasm in himself, of arousing it to the highest pitch in others. He reminded one always of the Alpine mountains,

> ——————"the mountains,
> Round whose snow-clad crest
> The clouds forever lie, the clouds
> From out whose breast the lightnings flash, and
> To whose breast the lightnings leap and hide."

His audience might sun themselves in the warmth of the fruitful valley; he was towering above them in thought's sublimest realms, cold, strong, majestic, immovable. He died in Marshfield, Massachusetts, in the 71st year of his age.

DEMOSTHENES.

THE father of Demosthenes was a cutler and cabinet-maker, and the great Greek orator was born B. C. 382. His father died when he was but seven years old, and his property, consisting of fifteen talents, was put into the hands of three guardians who were appointed by his father. Upon arriving at his majority he demanded his money but could not get it, and

at once instituted proceedings against those who held it, and not being able to employ an advocate, pleaded his own case, and obtained a verdict for the sum of ten talents against one of them. The speeches made by himself on the occasion were amongst the finest specimens of his oratory. They were the eloquent, fiery outpouring of his indignation and wrath, the hot, passionate, though almost boyish expression of his sense of the injustice done him, and his impetuous demand for justice from the Athenian court for one of her citizens. Encouraged by his success, and by the admiration he had excited, he now determined to devote himself to lecturing, and at once commenced the work; but his second attempt ended in a failure as mortifying and humiliating as his first had been gratifying. Without the stimulant of that intense excitement which had nerved him then, his voice was weak and feeble, and the impediment in his speech was so great as to render it difficult for him to be understood at all; and he met with only contemptuous ridicule. In no way discouraged by the ill-fated beginning of a public career which he had destined to be life-long, and with an unconquerable determination to succeed, to make his way in the face of every obstacle, and to rise above those whose sneers stung him almost into frenzy, he applied himself to study, going through the most vigorous course of practice, never wearying, and never doubting his ultimate victory. B. C. 355 he reappeared before the public, from which he had disappeared so entirely as to have been forgotten, and delivered two orations against Septimus and Androtion, which were exceedingly fine, especially the first, and these being rapidly followed by others, his fame as an orator spread far and wide, and, as one of those "whose resistless eloquence wielded and swayed that fierce Democrat, he became one of the leading statesmen of Athens, and took an active part in all public affairs. He strongly opposed the expedition to Euhoar, and endeavored, without success, to dissuade the people from taking up arms against the Persians. Thenceforth his life belonged to his country, and in anything which could serve her interests, or promote her honor, or add to her fame, he was a zealous and untiring laborer and any measure which threatened encroachment upon her liberty was watched with jealous and sleepless eyes.

B. C. 358 Philip, of Macedonia, began his aggressive war upon the northern part of the Macedonian possessions, and as their encroachments were patiently borne, and no opposition brought to bear, but the territory quietly given up, there seemed no probability that they would withdraw, or retreat, or give back that which was not demanded of them. The proud and patriotic spirit of Demosthenes could ill brook this insult to his nation, and to rouse his countrymen to a sense of the degradation of their position he uttered his Philipics, probably the most eloquent series of orations ever delivered; and they moved upon the hearts of the people as did the voice of Moses when he commanded the Israelites to submit no longer to the oppression of Pharaoh. The Olynthiacs are equally celebrated, and were delivered with a view to prevail upon the Athenians to aid the inhabitants of Olynthus, which had been besieged by Philip, and which, notwithstanding all the exertions of the orator, was taken the next spring.

Demosthenes was now sent, with nine others, on an embassy to treat with Philip, and concluded a superficial peace, which lasted ten years. At the end of that time hostilities again commenced, and the disastrous battle of Chaeronea left Philip master of the destinies of Greece. Defeated and disgraced, the people yet recognized the heroic efforts of Demosthenes, and his love for the Macedonians remained unabated; but upon the accession of Alexander to the throne, so strong was the power which seated and held him there, that all opposition was overawed; and soon there was a revulsion of feeling, and Demosthenes, who had been the idol of the people, came under their condemnation. Harpacus, who had been left at Babylon in charge of the immense treasure there, absconded with it, and, arriving at Athens, by a judicious distribution of part of it, secured his personal safety. Demosthenes was suspected of being one of the recipients, and was tried for the offence. No proof was found, but he was declared guilty; and the suspicion, and the weight of shame attached to the unsustained charge, almost broke the heart of the heroic old man, and he retired to Trozene, where he remained until the death of Alexander, when he returned to Athens, but was not allowed to remain; he fled again from his ungrateful country to Calauria, where he found refuge in the temple of Neptune. He died suddenly in

this lonely spot, an exile from the land of his birth, an exile from the country to which he had been so true—a victim of "man's inhumanity to man." His orations are familiar to every reader, and are pronounced by Hume as being the most perfect of the kind ever given to the world. "His manner," says the author just quoted, "is rapid harmony, exactly adjusted to the sense; it is vehement reasoning without any appearance of art; it is disdain, anger, boldness, freedom, involved in a constant stream of argument, and of all human productions, the nearest perfect."

EDWARD EVERETT.

EDWARD EVERETT, the fourth of a family of eight children, was born in Dorchester, Mass., in 1794. He was educated in the public schools of Boston, to which place his parents removed while he was quite young; prepared for college at Exeter, N. H., entered Harvard August, 1807, and graduated, with the highest honors of his class, in 1811. He was induced to study theology, and in 1812 was appointed Latin tutor in the University. Before he was nineteen years of age he was settled over the Brattle Street Church, Boston, but being appointed Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard, he resigned his pastorate in the third year; and, to improve his health and mind, was assisted by the Corporation of the University to travel, and spent some time in Europe, visiting its old colleges. He was in London when the battle of Waterloo was fought, and remained nearly five years abroad, at the end of which time he returned to his duties. He accepted the editorial charge of the North American Review, and under his care it became equal to any of the foreign Reviews. Mr. Everett's literary works are numerous, and familiar to every one. In 1824 he was chosen to fill a vacancy in

the Congressional district to which Cambridge belongs, and elected by a large majority. He was returned for five successive Congresses, and his legislative labors were able and effective. For ten years he was on the Committee of Foreign Affairs, much of the time as Chairman. In the spring of 1835 he declined re-election, and took leave of the House of Representatives. On the election of Gov. Davis to the United States Senate, Mr. Everett became his successor in the gubernatorial chair, and in 1836, and again in 1837, was re-elected to the position. He afterwards became resident Minister at the Court of St. James, where he remained several years. On his return he was made President of Harvard College.

As an orator, it is almost needless to speak of Mr. Everett to the people of America. So lately he was in our midst—so late our tears fell as they said, "He is dead!"—that his gifts and his virtues are fresh as is the memory of our loss. He was calm and earnest in his manner, his words and his measure were like a soft, liquid flow, never wearying you with sameness, never startling you with sudden outbursts of passionate rhetoric. He was no eagle, that—

> "Bared its bosom to the storm,
> And swept where darkest roll the clouds,"

but holding to the world of humanity with tender, clinging grasp, that placed no space between himself and them. While Mr. Everett's ideas combine in themselves every element of strength, they were so finely wrought, so daintily finished, so cunningly woven with sweet fancies, and broidered with all the poet's sweet devices, that in their beauty we forget their grandeur. In after times, the soft raiment with which he clothed them left our mind imperceptibly, as the dew is dried from the rose, nor seen as it exhales; but after this, we saw how massive was the structure that—

> "Autumn leaves distained with dusky gold,
> And clinging tendrils almost hid."

His taste his learning, and nis education cdmbind power to enchant his heares ;while his maner, like his matter, was studied, elaborats but not so much so as to be degraded into a trifling bauble or a splendid fault. Edward Everett died in Boston Mass. Jan 15. 1865.

HENRY WILSON.

HENRY WILSON.

Henry Wilson is one of those rare examples of men who have won a prominent place in the politics of the country without any advantages of birth, or culture in early life. He was born at Farmington, New Hampshire, on the 16th day of February, 1812. His parentage was of the humblest, for he was barely ten years of age when he was apprenticed to a farmer in the vicinity for eleven years. His master was a kind and generous man, who sent the young, hard-working boy to school in the intervals of agricultural labor, and here he soon developed a great taste for reading. He hungered after knowledge, and his evident desire to learn induced a lawyer of Farmington to offer him the free use of his library, which was fortunately a very extensive one. Here the statesman in embryo reveled, and in after life he has declared to friends, that he believes he read during those eleven years, a hundred volumes a year. When he became twenty-one he had exhausted the library. His indentures were now completed, and, if he had chosen to become a farmer, opportunities of advancement were not wanting, for everybody liked the shy, awkward youth, with his broad, high forehead, his honest eyes and his immense but somewhat desultory stores of information. But he had resolved upon quitting Farmington and seeing the world. Putting his few clothes and his books, his only treasures, into a bundle, he slung it across his shoulder and walked gayly off to Natick, in Massachusetts, where he hired himself to a shoemaker with the resolution of working at this trade until he had accumulated a fund sufficient to maintain him in some good academy. It took two years to do this, when he returned to New Hampshire and studied for a time in the academies at Stafford, Wolfsborough and Concord. Most unfortunately, the man to whom he had confided his little heap of savings became insolvent, so Henry Wil-

son was obliged to return to the shoemaker's bench at Natick. He was now twenty-six, and noted everywhere in the neighborhood as a modest, well-educated young man, with a great turn for debating. He delighted in discussion, and was so redoubtable an opponent that no one in the academies or among his comrades at Natick cared to enter into an argument with one who was so logical, so keenly alive to the weak points of others, and who had, moreover, so powerful a flow of language. Everybody predicted that at the next election the people would hear of Henry Wilson.

They did.

In 1849 he was chosen Chairman of the Free Soil State Committee of Massachusetts, which post he held for four years. In 1850 he was sent to the State Senate, and unanimously elected President. Two years afterward he was elected, by acclamation, President of the great Free Soil Convention, which was held in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, when he electrified the members by the most wonderful displays of eloquence. The Free Soilers put him up as candidate for Representative in Congress, and though defeated, he ran ahead of his ticket by thousands of votes. Next year the same party put him up for Governor, but he was again defeated, though still running largely ahead of his ticket. Two years afterward things changed, and the Free Soilers being in the ascendant, Henry Wilson was elected Unlted States Senator in the place of Edward Everett. No sooner had he taken his seat than he made the Senate Chamber ring with the most eloquent denunciations of slavery. He made a great speech advocating the repeal of the Fugitive Slave law, and for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. He next took an active part in organizing the Republican party on the basis of equal and exact justice to all.

In May, 1856, Mr. Sumner, his colleague, was assailed in the most dastardly manner by Preston Brooks, of South Carolina. He rose to his feet and denounced the assault as "brutal, murderous and cowardly." At the same time he intimated that should any one assault him as his colleague had been assaulted, it would be seen that he believed most fully in the right of self-defense. And now the whilom farmer-lad and shoemaker stepped into the front rank of the Senate, and was recognized by all as emphatically a strong and shrewd man, a keen debater, and a wise, fore-

seeing statesman. His great speech in defense of free labor, in reply to an attack of Senator Hammond, of South Carolina, was circulated in every workshop of the free States, and taught the working-men to recognize their champion. His term of senatorship expiring the next year, he was re-elected by an immense majority. When the Senate assembled in March, 1861, he was made Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs. In this capacity he introduced the act to authorize the enrollment of 500,000 men as an army, besides other matters of equal military importance. Gen. Scott declared that no man ever did so much work in one short session as Senator Wilson, and this only reëchoed the general sentiment of the country. From that date his actions in the Senate have embraced all the important work that has been done by the Republican party. He was reëlected in 1865, and again in 1871,

He was elected Vice-President of the United States by the Republican party in 1872.

He died at Washington, Nov. 22d, 1875, of apoplexy.

HOWELL COBB.

Rev. Henry Ward Beecher.

HENRY WARD BEECHER.

THIS distinguished clergyman and orator was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 24, 1813, and his father, Dr. Lyman Beecher, was quite a celebrated New England divine, who has the honor of being the father of some of our brightest literary lights. In every flock is some weak lamb, and Henry enjoyed the distinction, in childhood, at least, of being considered, both by his family and the neighbors, the "dunce of the Beecher family," a distinction which, we have heard, gave him no pain in those days, and but little since. Although he has taken so kindly to theology in later life, he has declared a never-failing distaste for the doses of catechism and ten commandments which he was forced to take. His memory was very poor, and he had a slight impediment in his speech, and a thick, indistinct utterance, which, together with his aversion to study, rendered it up-hill work to learn anything.

His mother died when he was three years old, and the lady who was chosen to fill her place appears to have been a most estimable person, though gloomy, stern and uncomfortably pious, with an ever-abiding, sense of her responsibility for the brood of little Beechers whose rearing she had assumed.

The father's early choice was, for Henry to be a minister of the gospel. Henry promptly decided that he would be anything else first, and suggested the sea. The boy looked with indescribable longing at the wild, free waves. In other years he understood this—now it is one of the mysteries of life to him, and stirs his soul with a joy that is yet a pain—a vague, subtle charm that, though he loved it well, he could not grasp or hold.

His father was too shrewd and too good a reader of human nature to openly oppose the boy's wish to be a sailor, and accordingly proposed an education that would fit him for the navy, trusting to time, but more to his repugnance to study, to wean

him from his fond fancy; and he was sent to Mount Pleasant to perfect himself in mathematics, at that time his "favorite aversion." But, stimulated by his desire to be a sailor, he applied himself diligently, and did his teacher credit, not for his proficiency, but for his progress. He also took lessons in elocution of Professor J. E. Lovell, and obtained in this way a control over his voice and utterance, which had been so bad before. He had been a student at Mount Pleasant but a short time, when, at a protracted religious meeting then being held there, he was converted; and now, with broader views of life and labor, he looked out upon the ocean again, and it was typical to him of life, and of his sphere of action. He remembered the fishermen of Galilee, and how the Master had said, "Follow me—henceforth ye shall be fishers of men,"—and his soul and all that was within him leaped for joy as it recognized and answered the call.

Mr. Beecher's first call was to Lawrenceburg, Indiana, and from thence to Indianapolis, where he remained eight years, when he received and accepted the call to Plymouth Church, Brooklyn.

There are no questions of general or special interest, either to his people, the public, or himself, that he does not inform himself upon and preach about them if he chooses. His church is supported by the sale of its pews, and from a weak organization whose failure was popularly predicted, it has grown to be one of the strongest churches, both financially and numerically, in the East. No description of Plymouth Church is needed. Everybody knows there are grander and more pretentious edifices and yet from that plain red brick building goes out an influence that is felt all over the world.

The unassuming simplicity of his dress, speech and manners might make it well worth while for some of our aspiring young clergymen to imitate—an example every way good. His sermons are the very soul of eloquence—warm, earnest and glowing with the love that fills his great soul—love for God and love for man, love for the meanest creature that ever the power of Omnipotence kindled life in. He is a professional thinker, and a hard student, yet genial and sunny as sunshine itself. In the fullest sense of the term, without exaggeration or flattery, we can say of him, that he is one of the mightiest pulpit orators of the day and one of the Master Spirits of the times.

GEORGE WHITFIELD.

HE was the son of an Inn-keeper, and born in Gloucester, England. He, the Wesleys and others formed themselves into a praying band at Oxford University, where they received the sobriquet of "Methodists." Polemical controversy soon divided them into two parties,—Calvanists and Arminians. Whitfield cast in his lot with the Countess of Huntington, and became the most popular preacher in her ladyship's denomination. He ranged the entire length of the United Kingdom, often crossed the Atlantic, traversed nearly every State, and was undoubtedly the greatest preacher that either continent ever produced. He had no family to enrich, no earthly care to distract him, and no wife to divide his time, for his marriage was short and late in life. He was the mere ambassador of God; he carried with him a glowing love and a burning zeal, which frequently broke forth in the most thrilling, dazzling and electrifying eloquence, such as swayed the mightiest masses, until like the awful deep they surged and swelled as though wrought up under the lash of the stormy Eurus. He became at length a living Gospel, full of nothing else but Heaven reconciled and man restored. He overleaped the ordinary bounds and preached at fairs, on commons, in fields, and by the road-side. He could be heard in the open air by twenty thousand people at once; his charming voice being distinctly articulate in the softest strains of music or in rolling peals of thunder. He effected more than the civil magistrate, when he brought the whole rabble of Bartholomew's fair down in crouching submission, wringing every heart with grief and blanching every cheek with terror. By a single sententious stroke he laid open alike the hidden arcana of every man's heart and the unseen realities of the eternal state. A glance would paralyze the hand of a skulking miscreant ready to hurl a brick bat at his head, while furrows on sooty faces

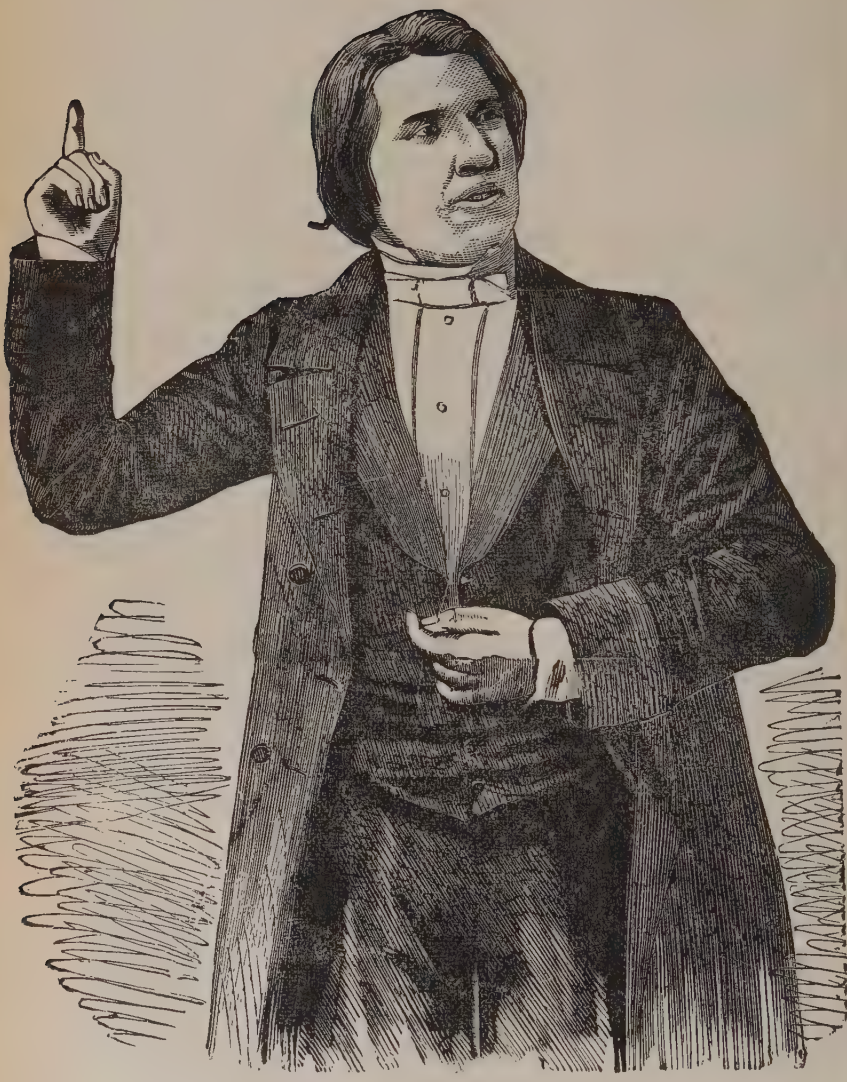
often told that poor colliers were weeping. The quivering of an ostrich plume bespoke its elegant wearer's deep emotion. People often said to him, "I came to break your head, but, through God, you have broken my heart." For years he received a thousand letters, on an average, weekly from such as were convinced under his preaching.

The great secret of his strength was, he invariably preached in the full confidence of accepted prayer. He spoke as one having authority and not as the hired clergy. He addressed the people in the spirit of the old Hebrew prophets. His only argument was, "Thus saith the Lord." He stooped to neither please nor rationalize with the pretended sophist. He flattered no man's vanity and retreated before no amount of threatening. Many more ornate in language have preceded and followed him, but none had his power of electrically darting the truth directly into the conscience, until the whole man quivered and lowered, like a bird struck and rankling with the barbed arrow of the archer firm fastened within. He was strong in the singleness of his aim, the simplicity of his purpose, the directness of his effort and the sincerity of his actions. He was alone the herald of the cross, the ambassador of Christ, the preacher of righteousness, the minister of the New Testament, and the servant of God. Every second thought to him was foreign, an unknown tongue, a grand impertinence, a wicked fraud, and a cruel mockery. To his eye the invisible was more palpable than the visible, heaven and hell were far greater certanties than earth, and eternity was a fathomless, boundless ocean, with which time could no more compare than a point to infinity. But however magnificent and great the character of the man, such he was by no other agency, not even through the least alliance or in the smallest part, than the glorious gospel of the blessed God. He had so adoringly and persistently gazed on the cross, that, as by the principle of induction or assimilation, he was changed into the same image. He frequently found an entire audience pretty much the transfusion and reflex of himself even as he himself was of the message he conveyed. His immense influence lives on, and can never, never die! Countless millions through the cycles of time and the eons of eternity will stud, gem and radiate, like clustering and corruscating diamonds, the victors crown of rejoicing.

REV. C. H. SPURGEON.

IT is astonishing that, although we commonly believe the world to be six thousand years old,—and Agassiz is rapidly convincing us that it is at least ten times that age,—she has not yet wearied of producing an endless variety of human beings, among which some are pigmies in intellect and education, while others are grandly gigantic—subjects of our unbounded admiration and wonder. In this latter mood was she when she gave to the nations that sit in darkness the subject of this sketch. When there came to us across the water the first notices of the "Boy Preacher," we smiled indulgently, and gave the matter not even attention enough to fix his name upon our memory; until fame, with a thousand tongues and a clarion voice, demanded for her favorite the homage that was his due. Then, rousing ourselves to look, we realized that he had sprung, like Venus from the wave, full grown, into power; and in an incredibly short space of time, he ranked with the first preachers of the day.

Mr. Spurgeon was born in the village of Kelvedon, on the 19th of June, 1834, so that he is at present 38 years of age. In his infancy he was much in the company of his grandfather, pastor of an Independent church at Stonebourne, Essex. His precocious piety attracted much attention, and it is said that at six years of age he had read repeatedly the Pilgrim's Progress, Baxter's Saint's Rest, and others of the same class. At fifteen he was sent to school to Newmarket, and while here was sorely tempted to adopt the principles of a freethinker. About this time he heard a sermon preached by a Methodist from the text, "Look unto me, and be ye saved, all the ends of the earth, for I am God, and none else." Said Mr. Spurgeon, "The command seemed to me as much a direct command to me as if there was not on all the face of the earth another sinner, and I made not one effort to



C. H. SPURGEON.

evade it, but I looked that moment, the grace of God was vouchsafed that instant; and I shall never forget that hour while memory holds its place; nor can I help repeating that text every day of my life."

He preached his first sermon in a cottage at Teversham. From this time his labors as a preacher were incessant. His friends wished him to attend college, to which he also inclined, and the cause of his failure upon this point may be best given in his own words. "I had agreed to go to college, the tutor had come to see me, and I had gone to see him. We were to meet at the house of a mutual friend. I was shown by the servant into one dark drawing room; he was shown into another. He sat and waited for me two hours, and I sat and waited for him two hours. He could wait no longer, and went away, thinking I had not treated him well; and I went away thinking he had not treated me well. As I left the house, the text 'Seekest thou great things? *Seek them not*,' came to my mind, and I declined to go to school." In the autumn of 1853, he was invited to supply, temporarily, the pulpit of New Park Street Chapel, Southwork, which had in former times been occupied by such men as Rev. Benjamin Keach, the well known author of "Scripture Metaphors;" Dr. Gill, the celebrated commentator; Dr. Rippon, of hymn book fame; Dr. Angus, the present highly respected and able President of Regent's Park Baptist College; the Rev. James Smith of Cheltenham, and Rev. R. Walters, now of Newcastle-on-Tyne. Notwithstanding the fact that so many eminent men had at one time or another labored there, the church had almost entirely lost all spiritual life and interest, and the congregation had declined until the young preacher found the chapel so empty as to be almost desolate. He created quite a sensation at once, and at the end of a probation of but six weeks the chapel was full. He was called to the pastorate, and entered upon the office when only nineteen years old. It is impossible to write of Mr. Spurgeon as we would write of common men. He has made for himself more friends and more enemies than any other preacher of his day; and gained for himself an unparalleled notoriety. His congregation is the largest in the world, and hundreds of converts yearly assert the power of the gospel he preaches, while his discourses are regularly published, and circulate all over the world. Yet there are those who de-

nounce him bitterly, and deny his claim to confidence or respect. He is one of the most catholic though one of the most isolated divines of the age. He is a Baptist, and does not attempt to conceal his views, yet is never restricted by them in his Christian sympathies, or his manly genialities, or his religious charities. He is not the pampered idol of a sect or faction of the Church Universal, and has never sacrificed his individuality to partisanship, neither has he submitted to narrow denominational bondage; his time, his talents, and his influence are at the service of those who are engaged in good works. Even in the most stormy weather, when drenching rains fall, or wild winds blow, the Tabernacle, an immense building, arranged so as to economize space, is filled from top to bottom; leaving no doubt of his almost unbounded popularity; and spacious as is the edifice, his magnificent voice fills it without taxing it in the least; it is never husky—never hoarse—never weak, but clear as a bell and soft as a harp; and he speaks as easily to his vast audiences, and reaches each one with as little effort as if he were speaking to a few friends in his own private drawing-room. There is no question but this gives him a very great advantage. No one who judges by mere outward signs, or who never looks below the surface, or has studied the intricate workings of the human heart, can say correctly that they know him. We believe the world generally does not understand him. He has sometimes been supposed to be a flippant egotist—a grotesque humorist—a low comedian in the pulpit, while nothing can be farther from the truth. It would, of course, be absurd to deny that he has a vein of comic humor in his nature, and that his quick appreciation of and relish for the humorous, or for that which may be said to verge upon the ridiculous, are not in accordance with the strictest rules of ministerial dignity; but it is at least pardonable. He has said funny, audacious, and startling things, and provoked his auditors to laughter by the sharpness of the ready wit, that sprang, unpremeditated to his tongue; indeed I doubt if he was aware that he had even been witty. The faults which he has been charged with are even virtues in his case, and lie at the foundation of his great success in the ministry. They are the fruits of a nature and temperament without which he could never have gone through one-half the work he has accomplished. He has an immense fund of animal

spirits, a fecund mind and a racy tongue; quick perceptions, thoughts that come to him, not always with regard to strict propriety, but with most perfect adaptability to circumstances; hence he may be said to have ready wit. The strange sayings in which he indulges are not stock-in-trade, carefully accumulated, preserved, assorted, arranged and labeled for ready use, but the exuberance of a strong, youthful, vigorous and prolific mind—exuberance which only a prude or a Pharisee would punish, but which a friend would seek at once to excuse and restrain; for they are the fruits of superabundant energy, vivacity fluency verbal aptitude, and unstudied, Saxon simplicity of speech.

In listening to Mr. Spurgeon, one is impressed with a peculiarity of his nature which goes far to account for what some people call his wonderful popularity and power as a preacher. Religious life is with him *real* life. His spiritual experiences are actual, vivid, living and practical. He speaks of his love for Christ as one speaks of a human love; as if it were the most natural thing in the world—indeed the only natural or proper thing. God is not a concealed being, but an actual, living presence, a Being who walks and talks with him; not only at eventide in the garden, but everywhere in life; and heaven is not afar off, but even in his own heart; and he scarcely looks forward to the time when death must open the door and give him a glimpse into that land whose glories eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither hath it entered into the heart of man to conceive. The Songs of Solomon are not difficult of interpretation to him. Their tender and beautiful words of endearment are just what his own soul, with its strong emotional love would prompt him to lavish upon the Saviour. His church work is very extensive, and the Sabbath service, though important, is but a small part of it. Ordinary Christians will be surprised at the extent of Mr. Spurgeon's labors. The zeal to which he has trained his people has always been seconded by his own efforts and by his attractive and encouraging example, being literally first in all good words and works.

In connection with Mr. Spurgeon's church is a college, of which he is himself president, numbering seventy students; and the evening classes number one hundred and eighty-two members. This institution is supported at a cost of 3,000 pounds per year. In addition to the very large Sunday schools, no less than eight

preaching places are regularly supplied. The church is kept in admirable discipline, and exhibits a strength of attachment for their pastor which is little less than idolatry. Though sneered at as a boyish upstart by a few, whose ignorance and prejudice on their only excuse, he is respected by all candid men as an earnest, eloquent, Christian minister of the gospel, full of energy, untiring in devotion, and practical in his godliness, hence triumphant over his enemies A long and wide extended career of usefulness seems to lie before him. He labors in the fields that are white for the harvest, as one who feels that he was called by his Master, and many of the sheaves which he has gathered, are already garnered in the storehouse of the Lord; and the souls of such as were ready to perish, those for whom no man cared, will shine brighter than the stars of the firmament in the crown of his rejoicing in the day of the Lord.

JOHN WESLEY

THE founder of the Arminian branch of Methodists, John Wesley, was born at Epworth, Lincolnshire, June 17, 1703. His father was rector of that place, and unlike many divines of that day, he was a rigid disciplinarian, and the strict enforcement of church rules and laws created so great a hostility against him that more than once the good man was driven almost to distraction. The education of his son was of an entirely religious character, and at the age of seventeen he became a student at Oxford, and while here formed, with fifteen other young men, a society which soon attracted attention by the austerity of their manners and the fervor of their piety. Their nightly meetings for social prayer and religious converse were held in Wesley's chamber, and from personal improvements they soon began to turn their eyes toward the poor, to whom, in these

days, the gospel was not especially preached, and they visited and labored with them in a systematic way that was productive of much good.

At the close of his university studies he was offered the position of assistant and successor of his father, but declined on conscientious principles, and returned to Oxford to labor amongst the students. In 1735 he was sent to the colonies of Georgia as missionary. He embarked for America with his brother Charles and settled at Savannah. He soon rallied a large congregation, which increased and flourished several years, until his rigid and sudden enforcement of every measure of discipline, raised such a storm of indignant protest from the people that he resigned. He returned to England where he met Whitfield, and the two erected one banner and commenced an active career of field preaching

At Bristol, in 1739, the first Methodist Chapel was built, under the supervision of these two active laborers. Soon after this a rupture between them occurred on account of a difference which they could not reconcile—Wesley being an Arminian, while Whitfield was a stubborn adherent to the creed of Calvin. Wesley, however, was as undaunted as he was indefatigable, and he preached all over the country, employing lay preachers, and promulgated his doctrines far and near, and in the conversion of thousands of souls he met his rich reward.

It is estimated that twelve million of the human race are taught weekly the lessons of religious experience wrought out in the active intellect of John Wesley; that no part of the known world has been unvisited by his disciples; that the tide of reform set in motion by his pure and lofty energy is still in the ascendant, is moving slowly onward with ceaseless vigor, and shows no traces of decay. Wherever the Anglo Saxon race penetrates it is pursued and softened by the influence of this unassuming saint. In Australia and South Africa, in America and the islands of the Pacific, the genius of Wesley is ever active. His schools and churches have belted the world with an illustrious chain. His writings have been translated into nearly all the languages of Europe, and are made familiar to the worshipers of Bramah and of Buddah. Since Luther, no other man has exercised so wide, so benign an influence upon his race. Nor is it unjust to assert that but for his English successes the Reformation of the German Church

into an empty formalism, at least in England, amidst the corrupting alliance of Church and State. It was the aim of Wesley to withdraw religion from the control of the great and the powerful, of statesmen or of bishops, to make it the light and the solace of the worship and the cottage, the almshouse and the jail; to diffuse its sacred teachings among the people, and preach, with saintly earnestness, the gospel of the poor.

As contrasted with all other successful teachers of a faith, whether true or false, it is a striking trait of Wesley's triumph that he was never aided by the civil power; that his disciples have never wielded the sword of persecution, nor gained any victories but those of peace. History, indeed, has no record of any other great religious movement, except the founding of Christianity, that was not perfected in violence, and sealed with the blood of its opponents. The Greek Church was planted in Russia by the civil power; the Romish Church won its supremacy by bitter wars and endless cruelties. Bernard and Dominic enforced their teachings by the sword; Luther and Calvin were often sustained by the arms of their adherents; the dark and treacherous brotherhood of Loyola obtained its ascendency by arousing in every land the fiercest flames of religious persecution. But of the millions of devout believers who have lived and died in the simple faith of Wesley, not one has yielded to any sterner influence than the power of Divine love. As the vast wave of reform has swelled from the poor cottage at Epworth over England and America, over the Pacific and the Indian seas, it has never needed a Constantine or a royal protector; has been governed in its holy victories by no human hand.

It is said that the domestic life of the noble reformer was anything but that foretaste of heaven which wedded bliss is supposed to be. At about the age of fifty he married a lady whose beauty of face and form, rather than of mind, attracted him, and she proved to be a shrew and a vixen, and poor Wesley learned to his sorrow that he had caught a Tartar. Her terrible temper embittered and destroyed the peace of his remaining years.

He died March 2, 1791, in the eighty-eighth year of his age, and in the sixty-fifth year of his Christian ministry.

GEN PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

OF the boyhood of General P. H. Sheridan little is known. He has not been handed down to posterity by the precocious wit of infantile prattle, or by wonderful exploits in his baby boyhood, and has not yet, to our knowledge, been spoken of or made famous by any doting biographers as the "curly-headed little boy who never told a lie." In years to come, when he has passed away, and there is no one living who can, from personal recollection, contradict it, even *this* honor may be lavished upon his memory, in addition to those which belong to it in reality.

General Sheridan was born in Perry county, Ohio. His parents were plain, unpretending Irish people, and their boy was early set at such employment as would enable him to do something towards his own support. At seventeen he drove a watering cart through the streets of Zanesville, the genius, howeve. that was in him attracted the attention of a member of Congress, who secured him a cadetship for West Point. The next five years, we fancy, were a curious compound of good and evil, and often his progress was like climbing a slippery hill, where the pedestrian takes "two steps forward and one back," until by this slow manner he reaches the top—for "Phil." *did* reach the top at last. He was quick tempered, proud and rash, as full of frolic as it was possible for human nature to be, and as fond of fight as frolic. Indeed, it is said, that "black marks" counted up so fearfully fast against him that it was almost impossible for him to remain in the academy; and sometimes the matter of turning away the troublesome but brilliant boy was seriously considered. At last, however, less through fear of the disgrace than from a desire to succeed, he managed, by the exercise of a vast amount of self-control, to keep his temper in check, and his mind on the rules; and he won the sympathy of his teachers, who knew how strong was the effort this required. They were

JAMES FISK, JR.

afterwards indulgently blind to his little slips. Yet with all the favoritism that could be shown him, he just nearly failed to graduate. He got through somehow, though, as he expressed it, "with the skin of his teeth."

His first exploits were in Texas, where, among the savage tribes on the frontier, he grew more bold and reckless than heretofore, and his quick, but impulsive Irish nature found abundant food to mature upon; if, indeed, there were need for circumstances to develop it. In 1856 he was put in command of the forces at Yokima reservation, and here his treatment of the Indians was so kind, and his negotiations so judicious as to win him compliments from General Scott. At the breaking out of the war of 1861 he was ordered east, and received the rank of first lieutenant. Soon after he was promoted to captain in the Fifteenth and sent to Jefferson Barracks. He does not seem to have been ambitious for promotion, or to have craved glory so much for himself, as to desire, with something like jealousy, that full justice should be done his men. Refusing, at one time, to forage on the enemy's country to the extent that some of the commanders seemed to think the fortunes of war allowed, he wrote a letter to General Curtis in which he expressed his opinion on the subject in terms more remarkable for honesty and force, than for elegance or respectfulness, and was ordered to be placed under arrest for "contempt of his superior officer." It is said that when the charge was read, Sheridan's only answer was a significant smile, and a slowly drawled out "*very likely.*" The pressing need of good cavalry officers, however, was so great that he was not long kept in "durance vile," but was released and sent as captain of the Second Michigan Cavalry, to Corinth. After his brilliant exploit at Booneville he was made brigadier general. At the battle of Murfreesboro—we wish we could give you all the story, it cripples it so to speak of it in fragmentary sketches, as our space compels us to,—but there he won laurels that will never die, and saved the reputation of Rosecrans, as he himself admitted in the dispatch in which he praised in the highest terms—not too extravagant—they could not be—the bravery of the men. His division was literally butchered under his eyes, as he held them firm in the martyrdom which they willingly suffered, *for their sacrifice saved the army.* Negley was pushed forward at last to cover their retreat,

when their ammunition was exhausted and the bayonet could not be used, and they left the field in sullen silence, with firm step—that little handful—and shouldered arms, like men who were going out to victory. In his dispatch he said: "I knew before I reached the thicket that hell was in there; but I knew it better when I got there and saw the men fall right and left, while Sheridan rode bareheaded, sword in hand, through the fire and smoke, begrimed with powder, stained with dust and blood, lightning leaping from his eyes and curses from his tongue—he did indeed seem the incarnate Spirit of Darkness."

After the battle of South Mountain he was made Brigadier General in the place of General McPherson, that noble chief, who went down in the early morning of his life. In the battle of Middleton, whose glory is of so terrible a brightness that the pen of the historian pauses while his mind gropes blindly for words that will paint its colors, and whose appalling gloom chills the blood in its haste to the heart, and whose victory was tempered by the sad, sad loss it costs us, Sheridan performed the feat which will be remembered so long as time lasts. Of this, Thomas Buchanan Reed wrote his masterpiece, the poem called "Sheridan's Ride." No poet could do it justice; only the gratitude of the country can do that.

In person, Sheridan is not one's ideal of a military commander. He is short, broad, well-knit, compact, and though not exactly meriting that title, is known among his soldiers as "Little Phil." His face is a pleasant one—rather handsome it looks to partial eyes,—with eyes that are always either dancing with fun or flashing with feeling. In private intercourse he is frank, genial, social and a general favorite. As a military commander, he ranks with our first officers, and well deserves the fame he has won.

GEN. W. T. SHERMAN.

WM. TECUMSEH SHERMAN was born in Lancaster, Fairfield county, Ohio, on the 8th day of February, 1820, and was but nine years of age when his father died, leaving eleven children to the care of the mother. For six years previous to his death he held the position of Judge of the Superior Court of Ohio. After Mr. Sherman's death his friend, the Hon. Thomas Ewing, proposed to adopt Tecumseh, and as the mother wisely looked more to the child's interest than her own feelings, he was at once given up and placed by his adopted father at school and kept there until he was sixteen, when he was sent to West Point. Four years later he graduated in the class of 1840, and stood sixth in the examination. He at once entered into the regular service, and was ordered to Florida with the rank of Second Lieutenant of the Third Artillery. At the end of the year he was made First Lieutenant and stationed at Fort Moultrie, South Carolina. In 1846 he was sent to California, and during the Mexican War was promoted to the rank of captain.

In 1850 he married the eldest daughter of Mr. Ewing, between whom and himself there had been a strong attachment since his childhood. Wearying of a profession that in time of peace consisted of a monotonous round of mechanical duties, he resigned his commission and was made president of a banking house in San Francisco, where he remained several years. In 1860 he was offered the Presidency of the Louisiana State Military Academy, where he remained until the gathering of the war clouds black with their pent up volumes of wrath, warned him that the storm was near, when he resigned his position, only three months before the attack upon Fort Sumter. In his letter to the Board of Supervisors, he says: "I beg you to take immediate steps to relieve me the moment this State resolves to secede; for on no earthly account will I do any act, or think any thought hostile to, or in

defiance of, the old government of the United States." His resignation was accepted and he went to St. Louis to make preparations to enter into the combat the notes of which were already sounding far and near through the land.

The history of General Sherman for the next four years is the history of our country's struggle to maintain and defend the constitution. His success is the old, old story of the triumph of those who loved better than life the principles on which our government was founded—who were ready to give life and more, if more was theirs to give, for the triumph of right. His brother officers and those who were his superiors in command speak of him in unmeasured terms of admiration; and when a division of the army was placed in his charge, when he came to be only second in command in all our army, his skill, courage and lion-hearted bravery saved our troops from destruction and our cause from disaster. O, noblest of the noble men who rallied under our banner, who with heart breaking under wrong and injustice, under the calumny and misinterpretation which it met, had yet the inward strength that was born of patriotism in that dark hour, to forget self, to bear the pain until such time as your country should vindicate your honor!

Of his conduct at the bloody battle of Pittsburg Landing his historian says: "Through all that fearful Sabbath day he seemed omnipotent, and to bear a charmed life. Horse after horse sunk under him, and though struck several times, he was not wounded so as to give up the command, and from the first to the last, where the fight was fiercest and the leaden hail fell thick around him, he blazed like a meteor here and there over the field. His intrepidity saved Rosecrans at Stone River, and Thomas at Chickamauga, and Grant at Shiloh. Of this last battle Rosseau says: "No living man could surpass him;" and just a few days before his death the lamented Nelson said: "For eight hours the fate of the army on the field of Shiloh depended on the life of one man—if Sherman had fallen the army would have been captured or destroyed;" and Halleck comes up and generously declares in his dispatches: "He was a strong man in the high places of the field, and hope shone in him as a pillar of fire when it had gone out in all other men." It is useless to write what the world already knows so well; but it is pleasant to linger over these grand deeds and to

think from what source came the inspiration under which they were enacted.

Do you remember, oh, grateful country, the long march from the "River to the Sea?" Do you remember the storming of Fort McAllister, and the dispatch which, meaning so much, yet only modestly said, to the president, "I make you a Christmas present of the city of Savannah"?

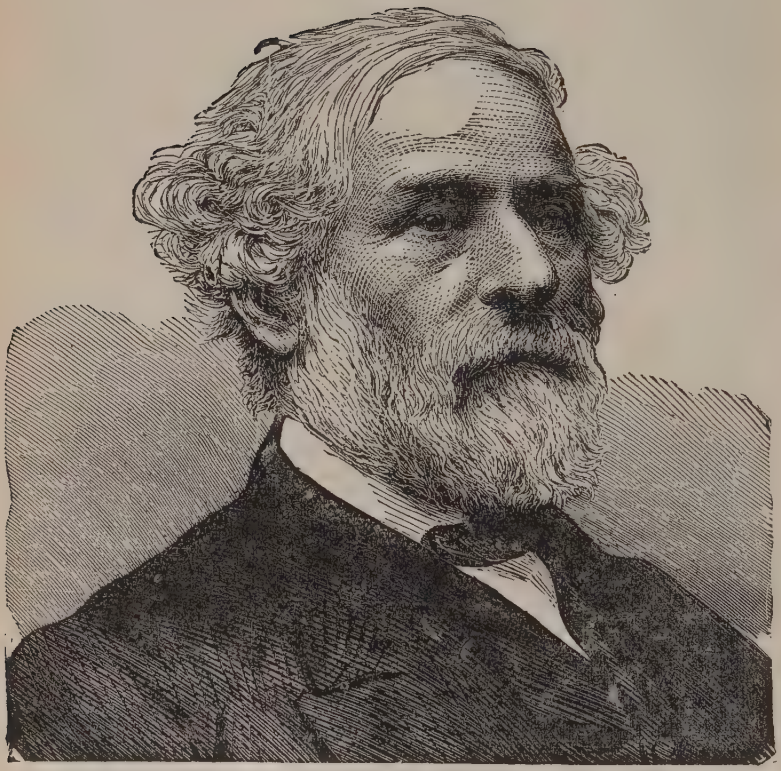
A critic says: "Personally, General Sherman is anything but heroic in appearance, a plain looking man, six feet high, slender, brawny, like a vast bundle of muscles. He is abrupt and rapid in conversation; a man whose temperament will keep him forever busy."

You all know what his face is like; stern, yet kindly, lighted by a pleasant smile sometimes, and a pair of glorious eyes always.

GEN. ROBERT E. LEE.

ROBERT E. LEE was born at Stratford, Westmoreland county, Virginia, January 19th, 1807. His father died while he was yet a child, and at the age of eighteen he entered the Military Academy at West Point, from which he graduated in four years. He stood second in a class of eighteen, many of whom have since risen to distinction. Some of them fought at his side and shared the brilliant conquest of Mexico—and in the sharper and sudden conflict where, on southern battle-fields, brothers stood face to face as foemen, they met again. It was no war for conquest now, but a war for principles—no war for glory, but a war for that which was dearer than life to each—the rights of the land they loved, and though divided in opinion and in action, they were brothers still, and equally honorable.

When he left college he was at once appointed to a lieutenancy in the corps of topographical engineers. When the Mexican war



ROBERT E. LEE.

opened, Lee was appointed chief engineer of the army, under General Wool, and it was to his skill that General Scott was always pleased to admit that he owed the victory of Vera Cruz. He was placed on the general's staff, and the skill and bravery of the young officer was often referred to by his seniors in command. He received two promotions in the campaign. For his noble conduct at Cerro Gordo he was breveted major, and the laurels thickened in his wreath of glory at Contreras, and at the terrible battle of Chepultepec. He was appointed to the rank of lieutenant colonel, and at the end of the war was made Superintendent at West Point, still retaining his military rank. While he was yet at the head of the academy, two regiments were ordered by Congress to be raised, equipped, and sent to the Texas frontier. Of the second regiment Colonel Lee was appointed Lieutenant Colonel, and remained four years in the southwest fighting the Indians and performing general garrison duty. Upon his return from Texas he went to Europe, where he studied army tactics closely, storing away in his mind many a suggestion which came to be of use to him in after years.

He was a man of pleasing appearance, fascinating manners, and possessed a high type of physical beauty. He soon became a general favorite in the old world, where he had relatives among the nobility, having descended from the Lees of Ditchley, one of whom married a daughter of Charles II. and the Duchess of Cleveland.

Up to the time of the breaking out of the war between the North and South, General Lee had taken no part in politics; indeed, had little taste for it. With all his heart he loved the Union, but with all his soul he loved the State that gave him birth—that had been the home of his fathers, far back beyond the Revolutionary War, and he believed that he owed a stronger allegiance to Virginia in particular than to the United States at large. There was much in the character of General Lee that was noble, and now all that was strongest and best was roused into action. The struggle was long and severe. He was not prepared for neither did he desire secession. General Scott, who may be said to have been the foster-father of Lee's military talents, appreciated him very highly, and when he resigned his commission in the Union army remonstrated most earnestly with him; but Lee

though heart-broken at the necessity of chosing, remained firm. "I am compelled to," he said; "I cannot consult my own feelings."

When the secession of Virginia was formally decided upon, General Lee was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Confederate armies. He was a brave soldier and a skillful general, and while there are numberless evidences of his humane and generous disposition, our space will not allow us to give them. He never, even in the heat of battle, in victory or defeat, forgot the courtesy which is due from man to man, for General Lee possessed that crowning grace which adds luster to the most perfect character, and to the most brilliant intellectual attainments,—he was a Christian. His public life, while connected with the army of which he had the honor to be commander-in-chief, is too well known to make it necessary for us to go into detail.

He has sometimes been severely censured for the surrender of his army to General Grant, but it was not cowardice nor treason, nor even an error of judgment. He had fought long and bravely, and done all that lay in his power for the cause he defended: even in the last act was more thoughtful for others than for himself, since his heart had never known a throb of fear, but he would not allow a useless sacrifice of the lives of his men, and he accepted terms that were honorable both to his own army and to those who offered them. In his last interview with General Grant, General Lee spoke in the most earnest and emphatic manner of his desire for a total cessation of hostilities and for a return of peace, and when that peace was declared, he never, by word or act, encouraged a feeling of dissatisfaction amongst the people, nor entertained for an instant a sentiment of rebellion against the government. Fully aware of his influence, he exerted it to the utmost to promote union of sentiment and a restoration of prosperity and harmony. He suffered much, pecuniarily, by the war, but he never murmured nor complained, if he had lost; he had staked, and like a man who wisely does the best he can under the circumstances, he looked around for some way to make good his loss.

In 1865 he accepted the position of President of Washington College, an office for which he was eminently fitted; and under his excellent management it became one of the most popular

institutes. Its sectarian character was laid aside, and from North and South, and East and West, students filled its halls.

It was the intention of General Lee to have written a history of the war, but his severe labors wore sadly upon his constitution, and his overwrought strength gave way; his work and his life were ended together. His loss was mourned by the nation, for he had warm admirers everywhere, but in the South where he was most intimately known and most deeply loved, a wail of passionate grief surged over the land.

Mrs. Robert E. Lee is a grand-daughter of Mrs. Martha Washington, and General Lee's father was a personal friend of Washington, and highly esteemed by him.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

WE have never been able to banish the idea that men go back too much into the dead and buried ages to find their models and examples, overlooking the fact that we live in a generation when heroes are plenty, not only those who go out at the call of duty to defend their country, or die for her, but moral and spiritual heroes whose courage would lead them unflinchingly to the stake, if need be, to defend the principles they teach, not by precept alone, but by the example of a pure and honest life. The heroism of warfare and battle, may be grand in its own way, but unutterably grander is the heroism of him who dares to gird on the sword of truth, and in the face of established wrong, that has grown to gigantic proportions by the nursing care of ages, grown defiant by centuries of indulgence, proclaims the everlasting principles of right, justice and christianity. However, since we write of the Master Spirits of *all* ages, we cannot, in justice to our work, leave untouched a life so eventful as was Alexander's. The ruling passion of his life, strong even in

death, was ambition, and in youth he thirsted for glory as the hunted stag thirsts for cool streams. He accustomed himself to hardship and deprivation, scorning luxuries which would render him delicate or effeminate. His desire for knowledge was insatiate, and his education was entrusted to Aristotle, the first philosopher of the kingdom, if not of the world, at that time. At sixteen years of age he was appointed regent of Macedonia, and at the age of twenty he succeeded his father, Philip, upon the throne. He had already, by force of arms, or by subtle policy, subdued Greece to his dominion, and laying aside his arts long enough to pay funeral honors to his father, wearied of the constrained quiet which decency and decorum imposed, he, at the earliest moment, rallied his forces and set out on an expedition to conquer Thebes, and subjected it. But he was cruel and brutal, and the Thebians hated, with double reason, the power they could not break. His boundless ambition and haughty spirit could brook no control. With him, life must lay everything with which she was freighted at his feet, or withhold all. "The knowledge of the human heart," says Rollin, "and the art of gaining it, is of great importance to a friend." Alexander fully understood this, and he endeavored to bind his subjects to him by the ties of interest as well as of loyalty.

When he had proposed to his generals the project of invading Persia, they opposed him with reason and argument and entreaty, urging the nature of the country, the depth and swiftness of the river Granicus, on whose opposite banks the Persian army were encamped, also the rocky and almost perpendicular nature of those banks, which they must climb in face of the enemy's fire; but it all made no impression upon the headstrong king. His only answer was, "*Forward! I* lead you." They crossed the river and gained a foothold with great difficulty, and the swift waves rushed on crimson with the blood of the flower of the Macedonian and Persian armies. The struggle was fierce and sharp, the slaughter was terrible, and the Persian army was cut to pieces and totally destroyed, with the exception of 2000 who were taken prisoners. Sardis, looking on, terror-stricken at the fate of Persia, discreetly sent to Alexander, even while he was afar off, her surrender, in consequence of which he allowed them all their rights. After a long succession of victories which seem marvelous as a

romance of the Arabian Nights, he met Darius, near tne city of Issus. The spot where the battle was fought was bounded on one side by the mountains and on the other by the sea, but must have been of great extent since the two armies encamped on it, and it is known that the force commanded by Darius was immense. The river Pinarus ran through the middle, dividing it very nearly in two parts. The armies being drawn up in line of battle, Alexander addressed his men with eloquence and energy, appealed to their ambition and their pride alike, told them of the glory of the past, of the high reputation they enjoyed, of the rich spoils which would fall into their hands. He bade the Illirians and Thracians, nations who used to subsist by plunder and rapine, "view the enemy's army, blazing with purple and gold, not loaded so much with arms as with wealth; that they had but to push forward and with one bold stroke, strip it from them." When he had ended, the troops sent up deafening shouts, and eagerly desired to be led on to victory. The forces met, and Darius, with a cowardice that no circumstance can palliate or excuse, abandoned his army, his mother, his wife, his sisters, and his little son, who was heir to the crown he deserted; and all fell into the hands of Alexander, who treated them with the greatest consideration and kindness; nothing but the remembrance that they were captives, could have made them sensible of their calamity; and of all the luxuries they possessed before, nothing was wanting, and the confidence and trust which it is so hard to give an enemy, were not withheld from him by them.

The siege of Tyre was one of the most memorable events in history, confirming and fulfilling, as it does, so many of the prophesies of Isaiah. After a siege of seven months it was forced to yield, but not until he had sunk their fleets, destroyed their fortifications, and reduced the besieged garrison to the greatest suffering. The city was in a grand and flourishing condition when it fell into the hands of Alexander, and here began, according to Isaiah, the seventy years of obscurity and oblivion in which it was to, and *did* lie. She had filled up the measure of her iniquity, by her impiety against God, and her barbarities against His people. She had rejoiced over the ruins of Jerusalem, exulting, as she cried, "Behold, then, the gates of this so populous city are broken down. Her inhabitants shall come unto me, and I will enrich myself with

her spoils, now she is laid waste." But the day of her own humiliation was at hand, and, dispossessed of her dignity as a queen and as a free city, boasting no more her diadem nor her girdle, she will be reduced to the mean condition of a slave. "The Lord hath purposed it, to stain the pride of all glory, and to bring into contempt all the honorable of the earth." It is scarcely to be wondered at, that so many and so great victories should in some measure raise him in his own esteem, but for the arrogance which led him to take upon himself the importance and demand for himself the honors of a god, we see little excuse.

Two years after the battle of Issus, Darius and Alexander again had an engagement, which gave to Alexander a victory and an empire. The loss of the Persians in the famous battle of Arbela, was 300,000 men, besides the wounded and prisoners, while the loss of the Macedonians was very trifling. Flying, sore pressed, from Alexander, Darius was betrayed, and put in chains by the Governor of Bactriana, who, upon the approach of the foe, deserted his post and basely murdered the helpless prisoner whom he had bound with chains. He expired, but not until he had sent to Alexander a message of gratitude for the generous care and treatment which his family, who were still retained by him, had always received at his hands. Little by little, Alexander yielded to the vices and the passions of which he had heretofore been master, and abandoned himself to sensuality; whom the arms of the Persians could not conquer fell a prey to the uncontrolled lusts of his own nature. From his earliest years, as if he realized the mighty things to which he was born, he endeavored to shine on all occasions, and would not tolerate the thought of a superior; no one was ever fired with so strong a love of glory, and the unbounded ambition which is looked upon by Christian nations as almost a vice, was, to the heathen nations he ruled, a high if not the highest virtue. But though he claimed for himself something more than humanity,—that he was a god, and the son of a god,—he died at the age of 32, before he had yet reached his manhood's prime—died from the indulgence of the basest and lowest passions and appetites of man; and his kingdom was divided and passed into the hands of those who, with less ambition and more discretion, ruled perhaps more wisely than he had done.

NAPOLEON I.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

"IT is impossible," says Gregorovius, than whom we have no better authority, perhaps, "to establish with any accuracy the origin of the Bonaparte family." Certain it is, that when the author whom we quote, and to whom we are indebted for these facts, first introduces them, they are a quiet and unknown family, living in seclusion in Corsica. There the three young sisters grew out of their beautiful childhood into more beautiful girlhood, and the young brothers prepared themselves for the life that lay before them.

Napoleon, who was not eldest, yet in every way took precedence of Joseph, and the Archdeacon Lucien, their uncle, said on his death-bed, to Joseph: "You are the oldest of the family, but *there* stands its head—you must not forget this." Even in childhood he showed a marvelous passion for military life, and was almost constantly with the soldiers in their barracks at Ajaccio, imitating and practicing their duties and exercises. While very young he was sent to military school at Brienne, and in 1783 to the military school at Paris to complete his studies. He had already an ambition that was more than master of every other faculty he possessed, a vivid imagination aflame with the excitement of ancient history, and he aspired to re-enact the bold and valiant deeds of the Cæsars and of Alexander. Having finished his military studies, we find him at Ajaccio, and a zealous democrat. How in after years, when he with his own hand placed the crown upon his head, where the Pope had so recently rested his hand in consecration, did he reconcile his change of views! Corsica, as every reader knows, was forever in an uproar or a revolution—first the prey of one and then of another power, and when the time came that the democratic party, under the leadership of Joseph and Napoleon Bonaparte, drew up a congratulatory address to the convened assembly, it was filled with the bitterest denunciations

of the previous government of Corsica, and was most artfully but positively coupled with a request for the incorporation of Corsica with the Kingdom of France.

Napoleon watched every event with an eagle eye, reading the signs of the times with an accuracy that was almost prophetic, and when the right moment came, threw aside the Corsican patriotism in which he wrapped himself, as in a garment so long as it best served him, gave himself heart and soul, to France, and flung his life, his talents and his sword into the revolution.

After his conquest of the Austrians, he became an object of terror and dread to the French government, for his unbending will, his ambition and the military fame which he had won. To get rid of so formidable a rival, they adopted the plan of David, and sent their Uriah to the front of battle. In other words, they gave him the command of the great expedition which was about to be sent into Egypt. Napoleon was too shrewd to be deceived as to their motives, but the time had come for him to open the great revolution which he meditated against Europe—the great revolution which he had already decided should envelop the continent in a sea of blood; in which nation should rise against nation, and kingdom against kingdom. On the ruins of a world he would build a throne and unite the fragments into a kingdom more powerful than any that ever stood before, and it should be *his own.* There he would found the Napoleonic dynasty that should be upheld by a long line of his successors. His Egyptian campaign is one which we shudder to look at now, marked as it was by barbarities which disgraced the age, and the commander who not only permitted but ordered them. The cruel massacre of 4000 prisoners taken at Jaffa, unarmed and helpless, by his order, is a terrible stain upon his name, as also was the slaughter of the Ottomans at Mt. Thabor. Beyond Acre, no more triumphs awaited him. Sir Sidney Smith met him there with a legion of brave English soldiers, and Napoleon was compelled to retreat, as he did so poisoning several hundred of his own wounded men, whom he was unable to transport, knowing the Turks would wreak their vengeance upon them should they ever fall into their hands alive. Returning to France he found that Suwarrow with his horde of Austrians had defeated the French on the plains of Lombardy, and, crossing the Alps, appeared on the shore of the Var. There seemed but one man

who had the courage to advance to the now shattered front—but one general who could gather the demoralized forces and lead them to certain victory; *if he* failed, woe to France. With one bold stroke, Napoleon drove the legislature from the halls of the capitol at the point of the bayonet in the hands of his soldiers, to whom his order was law, and seated himself on the throne, under the title of First Consul. His next step was to expel the Austrians from Italy, defeating them at every point with frightful losses, and peace was granted to humiliated Austria upon the terms of the conqueror. The peace, however, was of short duration, for Russia united with Austria and advanced as far as Bavaria. Napoleon crossed France and the north of Germany by forced marches, with the most incredible speed, defeated the Austrians in several encounters, and at length hemmed in 30,000 at Ulm, where they were forced to surrender. He hastened down the valley of the Danube with an army of 180,000, captured Vienna and defeated the united armies under the Emperor Alexander himself. The next year, with blind fanaticism, or fool-hardy recklessness, the Prussians rushed on to combat with the hero of the day, and at Jena and Auerstadt, dwindled into insignificance until they were joined by the Russians, when for a short time they not only withstood him, but won the victory of Eyelau, with heavy loss to the French. But the star of Napoleon was irresistible. After the battle of Friedland came the treaty of Tilsit, which swept into obscurity all minor powers and virtually divided Europe between Napoleon and Alexander.

Napoleon had now divorced Josephine, and was looking around for an alliance with one who would add to the glory of his name and make yet stronger his position. Austria was only too proud to give him the hand of the Archduchess Maria Louise, daughter of the Emperor. He had sacrificed every personal feeling to his ambition, but he had reached the summit of his greatness. Alexander was far from being pleased with the marriage of Napoleon, as he had been upon terms which indicated, and indeed intimated a proposal for the hand of his sister.

War again broke out, and at Moscow the man at whose name all Europe had trembled, began the downward road which he never retraced. When his confused and distressed soldiers reached and crossed Neiman in their retreat, of his magnificent

army of three hundred thousand men, not thirty thousand remained; and these worn with fatigue, sickness and famine. They were in the midst of misery and poverty, and to save his own life, Napoleon deserted them and fled to Paris almost alone. Encouraged by his defeat, all the nations took heart anew, and the Emperor found himself in the center of a world in arms. At almost every step defeat awaited him. The most brilliant military abilities, and the almost superhuman efforts of himself, his officers and his men were powerless to avert ruin. At last he was overpowered and overmastered, and the Bourbon seated on the throne of France. At Elba Napoleon was allowed the emblems of royalty, and as if in mockery of the olden times, set up a mimic court. But his restless and ambitious spirit could not endure the forced inaction and quiet, and he escaped from Elba, returned to France, and at the head of but a handful of men, marched unmolested to Paris, dethroned Louis XVIII. and resumed his own place at the head of the nation. Again, when success seemed so certain, and safety so near, the allied monarchs of Europe arose against him, and at Waterloo he fought his last battle, except as he lived over the past in dreams. He was captured, banished to St. Helena, guarded with the most vigilant care, and here spent the remainder of his days. His captivity was worse than death to the proud and ambitious man, and only for the hope, never given up, of escape and triumph, no doubt his life would have ended sooner. He was magnificently treated by the English government, who expended 12,000 pounds sterling on his private establishment, and 400,000 more on the island, but he chafed and pined like a caged eagle, and died May 5th, 1812. His remains were removed by the consent of the English government to France, in 1841, and interred in Paris.

CÆSAR.

JULIUS CÆSAR was born 100 years B. C., and for two thousand years his name has been the synonym for bravery and patriotism. Thrown, from his birth, into public life, he filled a position which was inherited on one side, and forced upon him by marriage on the other, and early threw all the strength of his mind into the study of war and politics. He was as ambitious as he was brave—as honorable as he was patriotic; in eloquence and power of expression he was scarcely second to Cicero. He was a formidable opposer of the aristocratic party, and all his sympathies were with the people. He distinguished himself early, both in the camp, on the battle field and at the forum, and studied closely the changes in public opinion, never neglecting an opportunity to increase his popularity. During the great Catilinian conspiracy he was so eager and bitter in the expression of his hostility to the aristocratic rulers, as to subject himself to the suspicion of being in league with them; but the most jealous of his enemies could bring no proof of a charge so opposed to his usual policy, and so fatal to his advancement and interest.

In the year 64, B.C., he obtained the province of Further Spain, and it was there that he won the first of a long line of triumphs which ranked him with the greatest generals of all ages. Crowned with glory, he returned to Rome just at the time that Pompey, disgusted and disappointed at the failure of his own schemes, was ready to desert the party in power. Cæsar's influence effected a reconciliation between him and Crassus, and he formed with them that combination known as the First Triumvirate By this new party he was elected to the consulship, and obtained the provinces of Transalpine Gaul, Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum, with an army of six legions for five years. This placed him in an important position, and with an immense army at his command he prepared for the war that he foresaw impending between the

Romans and the Gauls, who for generations had been hereditary enemies. The hope or necessity of subduing a fierce and war-like race, who were, and had so long been on hostile terms with his own nation, was motive enough to have urged one who thirsted less than Cæsar for glory, to have undertaken their subjection, and for nine years he literally lived in camp, and slept with his harness on. The Gauls were conquered, however, and he twice led his armies into Britain and received the submission of the people of the southern part of the island.

These years had wrought great changes in Rome, and Pompey, hating the man who had eclipsed him, fearing the chieftian who far outstripped him, and jealous of his growing popularity and power, again joined the Aristocrats, and plotted with them how best to crush the mighty conqueror of the Gauls. A decree was passed by the Senate that Cæsar should disband his army by a certain day and retire from the command, or be considered an enemy of the State. Knowing to whom he was indebted for this, the haughty spirit of the "leader in a hundred battles" refused to accept terms dictated by petty spite, and his army refused to leave him except at his own command. Accordingly he crossed the Rubicon, and opened the civil war which resulted in giving him the dictatorship. The sharp engagement made him master of Italy, and he next drove Pompey from Spain, followed him to Greece, and on the plains of Pharsalia fought the decisive battle which gave him the entire Roman Empire. Pompey fled to Egypt, where he was murdered, and Cæsar proceeded to Africa, where he defeated Scipio and Cato, and then, by the battle of Theopsus broke the strength of the Pompeian party.

During his absence he was elected Dictator of the Romans, and upon his return was received with magnificent display. He laid aside the profession of war, studied peace and legislation, brought about many needed reforms, corrected abuses, sifted corruption and exercised the unlimited power vested in him with so great moderation and leniency as to cause him to be called "The Benefactor," and to win the respect and admiration, as much as he had excited the surprise of his enemies. A conspiracy was formed against his life, however, and he was assassinated in the Senate on the 15th of March, B. C., 44. As statesman, warrior and scholar, Cæsar was one of the most remarkable men of any age.

STONEWALL JACKSON.

THOMAS JACKSON, better known as "Stonewall" Jackson, was born at Clarksburgh, Va. He entered upon his studies at West Point three years in advance of his classmates, but far behind them in every respect, as to education. His disposition was retiring and taciturn, but his face brightened in conversation, and he was animated and interesting. By a singular coincidence, he graduated in the same class with Foster, Stoneman, McClellan, Sturges, Couch, Reno, Seymour and many others who have since distinguished themselves in our late conflict. He served in the Mexican war, where his gallant and meritorious conduct won him the respect of his superior officers. He was several times rewarded with well deserved promotion, and for the bravery he displayed at Contreras, was raised to the rank of lieutenant, with the brevet of captain; and so much distinguished himself at Chepultepec as to receive the rank of major. The actual facts of the Mexican war do not furnish the name of another person entering that war, without position or office, who attained so high rank within the brief campaign and series of battles from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico. The gallantry and cool courage of the young officer were such as to win the highest commendations from his senior officers; and in the special dispatches of Gen. Scott he was frequently spoken of as "the brave Lieutenant Jackson."

As a professed christian he was earnest, faithful, and zealous of good works; not only a regular teacher in the Sabbath school, but an earnest laborer among the poor, especially the negroes, to whom there was seldom so patient and faithful a friend, and wherever his influence could be exerted for them, his voice was heard.

At the outbreak of the war Jackson was living in Lexington, and it was not until the secession of his State that he laid by his peaceful pursuits, girded on his sword, and went out at the

STONEWALL JACKSON.

call of his country. Like his celebrated comrade in arms, Gen. Lee, he was a Unionist up to the very date of Virginia's secession, and the struggle between his duty to his State and his country was long and sharp, and at last he threw his strength, his influence, and his life into the struggle. It was at Harper's Ferry that he gathered the first leaves of the laurel wreath with which the South delights to crown her men.

The engagement at Falling Waters was but a prologue of the great drama in which he was to take so prominent a part. It was at Bull Run that he played the most conspicuous part, and is thought by Beauregard to have contributed so largely to the Confederate success; and here he won the sobriquet which followed him so long as he lived. Gen. Beauregard, fancying Jackson's troops to be raw, asked if they would stand fire? "Yes," answered Jackson, "like a *stone wall!*" And from the memorable day when Southern men and Southern arms were victorious on the bloody field of Manassas, until the day of his death, the name of "Stonewall" Jackson followed him, though he modestly insisted that it belonged to his boys, not to himself. In all the battles of the Shenandoah Valley he took a prominent part. His bravery and courage were unsurpassed and marked him as one of the truly great men of that period which called out the strongest feeling and put in action the dormant qualities of those who, untried before, proved themselves heroes then. Though the battle of Winchester pales into insignificance before many of the conflicts of the war, conflicts in which twenty times as many men were ranged on either side, yet it was never surpassed by any in the almost inhuman fierceness of the combat. It has been said of both armies that they fought like infuriated fiends; and though many of them were never in an engagement before, they behaved like veterans, and were led by commanders worthy of their valor. Although Jackson suffered the mortification of defeat on this occasion, had he been opposed by a less practiced and less gallant soldier than he found the Federal Commander to be, his well-known strategy must have won for him the honors of the day, as it was, so cool and brave was he, so slowly and reluctantly did he yield to the immense force against him, so ably did he handle and dispose of his men, that defeat had in it almost the glory of victory. The dogged courage and persist-

ent endurance of the Northern men were such that it was simply impossible to stand before them. So terrible was the engagement that four times was the color-bearer of the Fifth Ohio Volunteers laid prostrate in death, and the banner was borne forward to victory by the Lieutenant Colonel of another regiment who caught it from the hand of the dying sergeant.

To capture Jackson was a darling project of Gen. Banks, and more than once he barely avoided falling into the hands of the Federal forces. At Bull Pasture Mountain he narrowly escaped being captured, and was only saved by the accidental disobedience of the officers of the Richmond Zouaves. Again the fortunes of war made Jackson victorious, and he drove Gen. Fremont from his position on the Shenandoah mountains, and turned upon Banks with such rapidity that he had scarce time to retreat in order. At the second engagement between the Federal and Confederate forces at Winchester, the troops under Jackson were victorious, but his men so far outnumbered the enemy that it can scarcely be considered so complimentary as was his defeat, there certainly was not half the ability displayed as upon the former occasion. After a succession of skirmishes which were of no benefit to either party, Col. Fremont and Jackson again met at Cross Keys, and after a long and terrible contest, Jackson was compelled to yield; then within reach of their outstretched hands he slipped again through the very fingers of the Federals, when Fremont had marched fifteen days through rain and mud to capture him.

We said before, that Jackson was a devoted christian. Amid the dreadful scenes which were being daily enacted, he never omitted to appeal to his Maker for support in the trying ordeal through which he had to pass. Having foiled his pursuers in the valley of Virginia, he hastened to join his forces to those who were defending the Capital against the expected attack of McClellan. The Confederates now being in sufficient force to become the attacking party, determined to rid their Capital of a besieging host. A great council of war was then held at the Rebel headquarters. In it were assembled all that were eminent in the Rebel army. Johnson had been severely wounded in the battle of Seven Pines, and Lee was his successor. Gazing cheerfully over the countenances, for each of whom a part was assigned, the new Commander-in-chief stood like a rock. Thoughtfully and

sadly from one to another his eyes wandered, as if he was fixing upon his memory loved faces that he might never see again. Beside him towered the knightly form of Gen. Baldwin; at his other side stood Stonewall Jackson, now the idol of his troops, his face pensive, yet with an impatient light in his eyes, swinging his saber to and fro as if the narrow room stifled him, and he longed to be in the field, leading his men in the fierce combat. A little apart stood the two Hills, speaking in almost whispered tones, while around them were grouped Generals Wise, Hughes, Longstreet, Branch, Whiting, Anderson, Ripley and Magruder. Gen. Lee laid his plans before them, assigned each his part; there was a silent clasping of hands, a silent look into eyes that might never meet again, and they turned away to the duties that awaited them.

The seven days siege of Richmond has passed upon the pages of history as one of the most fearful the world ever knew. Great was the slaughter, and while it is not known how great on either side, it is feared, from the sad havoc wrought by a destructive artillery, that the sackcloth of mourning palled from twenty-five to thirty thousand American homes, rendered dark and sorrowful from the fact that countless thousands of the flower of the land were laid low in death. Among all the officers who planned and executed that seven days' work, none were more brave, composed and cool than Jackson, and there is no doubt but he was largely instrumental in compelling the Federal forces to raise the siege of the city. We find his name at that time a tower of strength to his own cause, and a source of continual annoyance and apprehension to the enemy. At Gaines Mills, the only battle of the series in which can be claimed a distinct and decided victory, Jackson struck the decisive blow which sent terror and defeat through the ranks of his opponents.

It was Jackson's fortune, during his short but brilliant military career, to have crossed swords with some of the best and bravest of the Federal Generals, each of whom acknowledged him their peer, and recognized his military genius. We find him opposed by Lander, on the Upper Potomac; by McDowell, at Bull Run; by Shields, and Banks, and Fremont, in the Virginia Valley; by Porter and Heintzelman, with McClellan as Commander-in-chief, in the combats near Richmond, and by Hooker and Sumner, with

McClellan again as their chief, at Antietam. The rest of his career was upon different fields, with still older Generals to resist his might and genius. It was at Chancellorville that General Jackson received his death wound, and on that hotly contested field, where the soil drank in the ensanguined tide that flooded it, his own life blood mingled with that of nearly three thousand brave men from both armies, but no foeman's shot or shell or saber wound cut short the life of this man who gave it cheerfully for the sake of the land he loved. Three shots struck him, but all were from the guns of his own men. Unconsciously they killed the leader they worshiped, and though it was known from what company they came, in mercy their number was never given. During the month of May the Federal army lost, in killed and prisoners, *twenty-five thousand*. The Confederate loss was smaller, but they suffered one loss which was irretrievable.

Gen. Lee said of him, "Pure, high-minded, unselfish, he has no thought of his own advancement. The sole aim and object of his life is the good of his country" Sunday, the twelfth day of May, 1863, will ever be a day of mournful memory to the people of the sunny South. On that day set the most resplendent star in their galaxy of Generals. He who had forsaken the quiet of his professional life to put himself at the head of charging columns, on that day breathed his last. He who, amid the blaze of cannon, the rattle of musketry, and the clash of steel, had won honor and renown, died a soldier's death—died as he had lived, strong in his religious faith—strong in his reliance on Him who is mighty to save; going down into the valley and shadow, fearing no evil. At his own request, the sermon was preached from the words: "For we know that all things work together for good to them that love God."

GUISEPPE GARIBALDI.

HE was born at Nice, Italy, in 1807. Little can be said of his early parentage, and this is to our radical republican purpose, as it will compel us to base the man where all ought to be based,—*upon merit alone*. Who would honor a stupid mule simply because he can trace in its lineage a noted horse which once won the Derby? In refreshing contrast with all such empty boasts, we find the hero of Italy is the son of an industrious sailor. His father never had more than a bare competency. When but a stripling he gave evidence of great aptitude for study, so that at eight years he was proficient in geometry and algebra. He refused, when young, to be articled to any profession, and declared his preference for a sea-faring life. In short, as a boy, he was no lisping finic, no long-haired dandy, no lily-white fingered gentleman, but a strong, hardy and robust germ, from which has broken a spirit that, like a rod of iron, has smitten and dashed to pieces the old despotisms of Europe.

The year 1834 effected great changes for Garibaldi. On the accession of Charles Albert to the throne of Sardinia, that monarch belied his previous character by refusing to adopt more liberal principles as the basis of his administration. Then Garibaldi, Mazzini, and others conspired to revolutionize their country, but were betrayed by a perjured professed adherent. Thus baffled in his first revolutionary attempt, branded with the black name of a conspirator, and disguised as a peasant, he sought refuge in flight and hastened to Marseilles. Here, under circumstances of great daring, he saved a youth from drowning, and indignantly refused a liberal reward offered by the family. He proved himself no leech, no loafer, no pensioner on the bounty of others, but a high-minded, honest-hearted, horny-handed working man.

The failure of the above plot sent Garibaldi on his first visit to South America. Here he found many exiles like himself, and with

their assistance, procured a small coasting boat with which he traded between Cabo Frio and Rio Grande. Presently, hearing of a republican outbreak against the Brazilian government, he volunteered the former his ship and crew. Soon he found the movement degenerating into a miserable, mercenary scramble. So he left it, from the very motive which induced him first to join—*disinterested patriotism*. Shortly after, at the head of the Italian Legion, of whose exploits all his countrymen are justly proud, with only 134 men all told, raw, half-fed and undisciplined troops, he succeeded in expelling a force of the enemy over 500 strong, and they hardy veterans, long experienced and self-confident soldiers, apparently impregnably entrenched on the confines of the country. Next morning more than half the imperious enemy were found slain in battle, and the few remaining, mostly maimed and wounded, were easily taken prisoners. The news of this victory, so disastrous to the imperial party, produced great rejoicing in Monte Video. The name of the Legion was emblazoned on its banner in letters of gold by order of the government. The first officer of the French admirality wrote a letter of eulogy to Garibaldi, with his own hand, in which he declared that such an exploit would have lent luster to the renown of the first Napoleon's grand army.

With the more recent events of the last thirty years the reading community are familiarized by all the papers of the globe. The battle of Magenta and Solferino, and the treaty of Villafranca have been followed by events which have made the ears of the eastern continent to tingle. Kingdoms have been quickly revolutionized. Crowns have been torn in the grasps of popular fury. The floods of the people have been lashed into madness, and then left, like the rolling sea after a frantic storm, to rock themselves to rest. The last of the accursed house of Bourbon has been cast aside as a withered branch. He, who conquered the Philistines by the hand of a shepherd boy, who dispersed the Midianitish army by the breaking of earthen vessels and the acclaim of voices, who brought down the fortifications of Jericho by the tramping of feet and the blowing of horns, He has seized a poor sailor, and made him a scourge in His right hand with which to lacerate and scatter the tyrants of Europe. The hero, meanwhile, humbly seeks his Caprera Island home.

WILHELM, EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

THE EMPEROR WILLIAM OF GERMANY, HIS FAMILY, AND CHIEF GENERAL.

THE Emperor William is an economical, unostentatious sovereign, who lives now very much as he did when he was Crown Prince. Perhaps he came back from Versailles with a couple of trumpets and drums the more, but that was all. He is a robust, bald old man, with a remarkably healthy face. His head is enormous, aud rests on very broad shoulders; his eyes, gray and bright, under thick eye-brows which frown with facility; his mustache, joined to thick white whiskers, completely covers his mouth and conceals its expression. War for him has always been a divine mission, and in his visions the world appears only under a luminous cross formed by a gun and a sabre. His method of life is very simple; his love of discipline and regard for strict military, dress and deportment are profound. It is said that Bismarck gained his good graces by hindering him one day from appearing before the troops in a uniform not entirely buttoned up. He opens his mail every day, and charges his Privy Councilors to reply to all letters. After this performance he receives his doctor, who, according to the color of the imperial tongue, allows outside exercises or exacts staying in-doors. He regularly studies the bills-of-fare proposed by his cook as carefully as one of Bismarcks reports. The Emperor likes plain, but classical, and especially economical cooking; the dinners given by him when Crown Prince were notoriously scant. At his desk near the window he is often seen seated, and writing with an eagle's quill; before him are the photographs of his children and grandchildren, as well as various battlefield souvenirs—balls, bits of shells, and metallic cartridges. His vigorous constitution allows him to indulge in excessive work; travels, fetes and reviews seem only to increase his toughness. His thirst for popularity is unbounded, and the Court historiographers are continually writing him up. Born March 22, 1797.

The Empress Augusta has always been liberally disposed, and for a long time struggled against the belligerent tastes of her husband and liege lord. She tried hard to prevent all his wars, but in vain, and hence there arose an antagonism between herself and Bismarck, which still continues. She heads the Court party of

opposition to the Chancellor, as the Crown Princess, Queen Victoria's daughter, heads the English party. French ideas have always met with the sympathy of the Empress, and she was very kind to the prisoners of Metz and Sedan.

The Crown Prince also lives in the simplest style. No war tools are to be found in his private apartment. His tastes are agricultural, and rather averse to arms. His delight, indeed, lies in blue skies, green fields upon which the sun only flashes, the hum of bees and of mills. While his cousin, Prince Frederick Charles, reviews army corps, he visits school-rooms and amuses himself by putting his helmet on the heads of the pupils.

Moltke resides in the office of the Grand Staff of the army. The room in which he works is large and well lighted by three high windows fronting on King's place. The table around which the staff assembles in council is heaped with maps, books, pamphlets and journals. A piece of shell is the General's favorite letter-weight. The frescoes of the walls represeut some of the events of the war, and the hero himself is depicted under various costumes. His bed-room, adjoining, is of monastic severity. Moltke is tall, thin, slightly stooping; he is only straightened up on horseback, and then looks like a man of 30. His close-shaven face is very much wrinkled; his profile recalls vaguely Cæsar's; his prominent nose indicates will, perseverance, courage; his lips are thin and expressive of melancholy; his chin sharp; eyes black and brilliant; neck long. He is a great worker and an early riser; passes sometimes as much as nine hours at his desk without taking anything save a glass of Bordeaux and a biscuit; dines at two and sups at eight. He is always punctual in Parliament, where his colleagues style him the "Great Silent." Less a captain of genius than an admirable organizer, he is as cold-blooded in a battle as the gods who dwell in Olympus. His amusement is to walk in the Theirgarten, with his hands behind his back in the old Napoleonic style. A Dane by birth, he married a young English girl who fell violently in love with him; her premature death, in 1868, came near killing him.

He was born Oct. 26, 1800.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

THIS great British author, orator and statesman, was born in London, England, in 1805, and is the oldest son of Isaac Disraeli, the author of "Curiosities of Literature." He received his early education at a private academy in the suburbs of London, whence, while yet a mere boy he was transferred to the office of an attorney as an articled or bound clerk. Here he remained three years, but the monotony and confinement of his daily labor was galling in the extreme to the ambitious soul that already aspired to soar into realms far higher than the sphere of the most successful attorney, and availing himself of the assistance of distinguished friends of his father, "Disraeli the Younger," as he loved to call himself, with self-caressing conceits that were very soothing to the vanity which was strong in the talented young genius, obtained admission into what was called the "best society" of London, where his magnificent physical beauty, refined manners and brilliant conversational powers soon made him a favorite.

From the day when he filled an uncongenial post in a solicitor's office; from the day when he wrote novels and satires which did something more than amuse society, which added new treasures to the literature of his country; from the day when he was one of that gay throng of wits and fops of which he is now, alas! almost the last man left to us—Mr. Disraeli's life has been one that deserves, and will unquestionably receive the study and the criticism of future generations. He was a man of mark before he entered Parliament; he had *made* himself a man of mark, he—the obscure son of a man of the middle class, foredoomed to the drudgery of conveyancing—was looked upon as a successful novelist and social critic, at a time when the great rival, who has pressed him so hard throughout his political career, was still a youth at Oxford. His whole life is a tempting theme to dwell upon, but the limits of

these pages afford no opportunity of giving way to the temptation; and, though when diamonds are photographed little but the flaws are shown, we must try in this brief sketch to reproduce something of the light and the brilliancy, the depth and the splendor, of this "diamond of the first water," with whom we have to deal. His past career is part of English history, and to the historian we must leave it; our duty is simply to draw the ex-Premier of England as you may see him to-day in the House of Commons.

A man of middle height, of spare but well-proportioned frame, of scrupulous neatness of dress, and possessed of a countenance which no one can forget who has once looked upon it—this is Mr. Disraeli, as we see him now quietly walking up the floor of the House to take his place on the front Opposition bench. Arrived at his seat, he removes his hat—he alone among the gentlemen upon that bench—and sits down, folding his arms, and stretching out his legs in a fashion which recalls by-gone days, when, out of every twenty honorable gentlemen in the House, nineteen of them stretched out their legs in exactly the same way.

Over the high-arched forehead—surely the forehead of a poet—there hangs from the crown of the head a single curl of dark hair, black as jet, a curl which you can not look at without feeling a touch of pathos in your inmost heart, for it is the only thing about the worn and silent man reminding you of the brilliant youth of "Vivian Gray." The face below this solitary lock is deeply marked with the furrows left by care's ploughshare; the fine dark eyes look downward, the mouth is closed with a firmness that says more for this man's tenacity of will than pages of eulogy would do; but what strikes you more than anything else is the utter lack of expression upon the countenance. No one, looking at the face, though but for a moment could fall into the error of supposing that expression and intelligence are not there; they are there, but in concealment.

Much is said of the power possessed by Napoleon III. of hiding his thoughts from the keenest scrutiny; but more than once even his power over his countenance has been sorely taxed, and he has been glad of the grateful shelter of the curling mustache that shades his mouth. Without any such help, however, Mr. Disraeli has a face that is simply inscrutable. Again and again

have hundreds of keen eyes been turned at critical moments toward that face, to read, if it might be possible, something of the mysterious thoughts of the man himself; but never once, not even in the most exciting crisis of personal or political conflict, has the face unwittingly relaxed, or friend or foe been able to read aught there. It is the face of a sphinx, inscrutable and unfathomable; it is, as men of every party will admit, the most remarkable face in England.

Mr. Disraeli's mind is no more to be analyzed than his countenance is to be fathomed. He is here; we know what he has done, we have seen his labors, we acknowledge his genius, we believe him to be intellectually one of the greatest men, not of his own time, only, but of all English history. Beyond that we can not go, and we must leave to future critics, who will see him through a clearer medium than that through which it is possible for us to behold him, and who may have new lights thrown upon his character which are withheld from us, to decide what he is, and what precisely is the motive-power of his life. All that we know at present is, that he is an intellectual prodigy, and, like other prodigies, he must be tried by exceptional rules and standards. But this has nothing to do with the mere sketch which we propose to attempt of the man himself, of the place he holds in the House of Commons, of the work he does there, and of the qualities he displays in doing it.

He is a great party-leader. That is beyond dispute. To him belongs the honor of having, with an exquisite tact and skill, led the House of Commons, when he had only a minority of supporters at his back, and of having led it in such a way that the most watchful of foes were unable to trip him up, or even to change the secretly formed purpose of his mind. Those who saw him first as chancellor of the exchequer, then as prime-minister during the last conservative administration, leading his party and the house of commons at the same time, witnessed a spectacle the like of which has perhaps never before been seen; for we have no previous record of such generalship as that which Mr. Disraeli then displayed.

He was himself engaged in a task which, to the most sanguine of his own followers, had but a short time before seemed an utterly hopeless one, and which, to those of them who were unable to see as far as he did, seemed worse than hopeless—suicidal.

But he went on, in spite of difficulties and discouragements which would have broken the spirit and destroyed the strength of any other party-leader of modern times. And he went on with wonderful success. Past rocks and shoals and quicksands without number, and by a channel on which it had never before entered, he steered the vessel of the state; he faced obstacles which seemed insurmountable, and which, to any other man, would have been what they seemed, and lo! they vanished under his marvelous manipulation. With a party sorely reduced in strength, he kept at bay the overwhelming numbers of the enemy —nay, he even used them as instruments of his own, and it was by their aid that he passed the great reform bill which will henceforth be associated with his name, and balked his rivals. This is what Mr. Disraeli has accomplished within the last few years; and no impartial man will deny that it is one of the greatest political achievements recorded in the history of Parliament.

It was during the trying period between 1866–'69 that he developed his ripest powers. Until he became the leader of the House of Commons on the last occasion, he had never shown his remarkable fitness for such a post. On previous occasions he had done well; but then he did his work superlatively well. It is true, that, when he had formally been leader of the house, he had labored under the disadvantage of having opposed to him a skilled veteran who was the most popular party-man ever seated within the walls of parliament.

But, making allowances for the difference in his position which was made by Lord Palmerston's death, we yet can not doubt that there was a ripening and maturing of his powers during the long interval of opposition through which he passed, while that nobleman and Lord Russell were at the helm of the State for the last time, which contributed materially to his success when he himself was recalled to the leadership. It was not until he was recalled that, in addition to all his other great qualities, he displayed that geniality and humor which the House of Commons is so quick to appreciate in its leader, and the absence of which in the present prime minister it feels so strongly.

And somewhat akin to this humor is that higher power of sarcasm for which Mr. Disraeli has been famous throughout his whole public life. He is not, in one sense of the word, a good debater.

It can not be denied that at times he contrasts unfavorably with Mr. Gladstone. But upon some subjects he makes speeches which are far above the level reached by any other man in the House of Commons. No one has the power of investing a great political event with more of the interest attaching to domestic affairs than he has. Over and over again he has brought down incidents which were so far above the ordinary level of the House of Commons as to be beyond the reach of its sympathy, to the region of everyday life—as, for instance, in the case of Mr. Lincoln's assassination, when he made *the* speech of all the speeches made, the world over, upon that most terrible, most touching of tragedies, and brought tears to the eyes of men to whom, before that moment, the President of the United States had been a mere abstraction.

But while upon such topics he is a perfect master of words and ideas, when he is speaking upon the mere party-question of the hour, he often fails to produce that impression upon his audience which one would expect from a man of his genius. No doubt many causes unite to produce this effect. Chief among them, we believe, is the fact that he has not the passion of the ordinary party-man. The range of his sympathies is so catholic, that his mind is seldom roused to passion upon a question which is only a question of party; it is not until he is really touched by one of those few topics which have power to move him deeply, that the fire of genius in his soul pours forth its sparks, and that he shows all the depths of passion and enthusiasm hidden within him. And yet even when he is in his coldest mood, what an intellectual treat it is to listen to him speaking upon one of the great questions of the day.

The political career of Mr. Disraeli is one of the most remarkable in English history. By force of talent, industry and perseverance, unaided by wealth or family relatives, with his Jewish origin working against him with terrible force, and the reputation of being a clever novelist, he has raised himself to the position of leader in the House of Commons and minister of finance in the greatest commercial empire of the world.

CHARLES DICKENS.

CHARLES DICKENS was born at Portsmouth, England, February 12, 1812. His father was a retired Navy-department clerk, and in his latter years a reporter for the London daily press. Charles was intended for the profession of an attorney, but could never learn to love it, and though he plodded through a course of study, it was never of use to him except that it gave him a knowledge of law phrases, and a familiarity with the intricacies so dearly loved by the impartial goddess of Justice. He threw it aside without ceremony, for the more congenial duties of reporter to the London papers, and was afterwards attached to the "True Sun," then to the "Morning Chronicle," in which latter he won his first literary reputation under the signature of "Boz." He was possessed of rare powers of delineating character, and while some of his friends have regretted that he had given his talents to the portraiture of a class of the human family who would otherwise never be known to the world, it is here, perhaps, that he won more fame than in any other class of literature. The first of the "Pickwick Papers" was published in 1830, but the series was not complete until 1837, when it was brought out by Mr. Seymour. It was a favorite both in England and America, and is still considered his best work. His next was the "Adventures of Nicholas Nickleby," then "Oliver Twist." "The Old Curiosity Shop," more than any other work of his, paved the way for his enthusiastic reception in America, and when he came here in 1842, he had certainly nothing more to desire of our people. His views of American life were published on his return to England, but were too much of the Trollope school of criticism to be thoroughly relished, added little to his reputation, and nothing to his popularity. About this time he wrote several short Christmas stories which were very pretty, and the most amiable of his works.

In 1844 he published "Martin Chuzzlewit," and in the same year went to Italy and remained some time. "Dombey & Son" came out in 1848, and "David Copperfield," his own favorite, in 1850. In 1853 he finished "Bleak House," and in 1857 "Little Dorritt," both of which were favorably read.

Dickens' wonderful success as a novelist lies in his humor and originality, and no one, not even the most selfish of critics, can deny this. Wordy he is—even to a fault, perhaps,—but his words are so prettily chosen as to be forgiven by the charmed reader. As a public reader of his own writings, Mr. Dickens was certainly a success, and the stories already familiar to our mind borrowed a new grace from his pleasant intonation. His last visit to America is too recent for any to have forgotten the rapturous crowds who nightly listened to him. His domestic life has not been free from pain, and to this, perhaps, in a great measure may be attributed the under-current of deep pathos that is traceable in all his writings.

HOMER.

DISCUSSION and speculation have proven fruitless in locating the birth-place of Homer; even the exact age in which he lived is also lost. Seven cities of Asia claim the honor of having given the poet to the world, each with some show of truth, and seven more would be willing to share the honor had they a shadow to found their claim upon. Between the earliest and the latest dates in which he is said to have lived, lies a period of nearly five hundred years. It is impossible to state more than the probabilities of the case, which are, that he was a native of Smyrna, an Ionian city, on the coast of Asia Minor, and was therefore an Asiatic Greek; lived in the second century, after the taking of Troy by Achilles; most likely from B. C. 1019 to B. C. 984.

It is well established that he was blind, not from birth, but from an accident, occurring at some unknown date. The songs and poems of Homer were scattered until the time of Pisistrus, who gathered them together and formed the collection much as it is known now. To the Iliad and Odessey he owes his fame, though all his works are worth preserving. Scholars differ much in opinion of his minor poems and epigrams, many doubting their authenticity. The Iliad is claimed to be not only the oldest specimen of historic and national poetry, but the most perfect poem of the kind ever produced. The subject is well known—the siege of Troy, which was invested by Achilles, in order to be revenged on Agamemnon, who had supplanted him in the affections of his mistress, Briccis. It is divided into twenty-four books, and ends with the death and burial of Hector. The long continued and terrible sufferings of the Greeks; the horrors of the siege; the barbarous mode of warfare of that day; the full gratification of the revenge of Achilles, and the reaction of feeling at last, are vividly portrayed. The Odessey, preferred by some to the Iliad, we can not think its equal. It is also divided into twenty-four books, and contains the history of Ulysses and his adventures while on his return from Troy to Ithaca. There is no doubt but that, so far as the subject gave scope for expression, the poem is equal to any he wrote, but in the death and funeral services of Hector, the author had opportunity to portray all the heights and depths of sublime endurance, of heroism, affection and grief.

The criticism of Colonel Mure upon Homer is very fine. He says: "In conception and portraiture of character, and the deepest vein of tragic pathos, he may be equaled by Shakspeare; in moral dignity of thought and expression, by Milton; in the grace and delicacy of his lighter pictures, by Petrarch and Ariasto; and in the gloomy grandeur of his supernatural imagery, by Dante; but no one of these poets has combined in so great a degree those various elements of excellence, in each of which they may separately claim to compete with him.

Like the works of Shakspeare and Dante, Homer's may be compared to a fine old painting, whose rare colors and exquisite shades have been mellowed by time, and age has but made them more attractive to the scholar.

JAY GOULD, THE NEW YORK SPECULATOR.

SHAKSPEARE.

IT is said that no other man ever swept the complicated strings of the human heart with so masterly a hand as William Shakspeare. It is said that no other mind was ever so familiar with every shade and phase of human nature as he, and that no one could so well uncover the dark passions that were hidden from the world with cunning skill, or that slumbered unchallenged and unseen. No works, dramatic, poetic, or prose, in ancient or modern literature, have had so much influence in every grade and sphere of life, and their popularity increases with the increase of knowledge and education.

He was born in 1564, probably, though not certainly, in Stratford-on-Avon. The house in which he is said to have been born was unquestionably the property of his father in 1546, and afterwards came into possession of the poet. Very little light is thrown upon his early life, for he was only a yeoman's son, and nothing in his childhood gave promise of the glorious manhood that lay before him, or the laurels that in every land under the sun were budding for his brow. Every theory has been advanced; that he was a pale-faced student in the grammar school of his native town; that he was an attorney's clerk; that he was a dissipated young blade who shamed his honest, hard-working parents; that he was a reckless poacher, who heeded no game laws and feared no magistrate.

A mile from Stratford stood an old, gray farm-house, whose porch was smothered in honey-suckles, and from whose mossy eaves long, slender sprays of ivy swung down, catching the window ledges and draping the diamond-paned lattice with its veil of dainty green. Here lived sweet Annie Hathaway, to whom the poet when but eighteen years of age, was married and the marriage was full of happiness for both. Three children were born to them, two daughters who survived their parents, and a son, who died young.

When Shakspeare was only twenty-five years old he was one of the proprietors of the Blackfriars Theater, and he afterwards became its entire owner. The date of the production of his first play is lost; indeed, accurate dates can be affixed to but few of his writings, except his poems. It would be folly to criticise an author whose genius and talents are so widely acknowledged, and to whom such universal homage has been paid, as there is scarcely a mind in the old world or the new whose treasure house does not hold gems that this master poet has polished and fitted for their setting.

He became immensely wealthy from his theater. He died April 22, 1616, and no descendant of him lives to bear his name, indeed, it is defunct, but in every home and at every hearth his memory is honored and loved.

JAMES F. COOPER.

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER was born at Burlington, New York. His parents removed, while he was in his first year, to Otsego Lake, and there, in the almost unbroken wilds, the pioneer began life anew by the erection of the homestead, or "Hall," as it was styled,—the "Hall" so often referred to in the novelist's works. His father was a man of a good deal of shrewdness and sagacity, and possessing an immense tract of land that came to him in some way, how does not seem to be made quite plain by history, of course became the possessor of almost boundless wealth as civilization brought it into demand.

Mrs. Cooper, his mother, was a woman of strong and cultivated intellect, of great personal beauty, and a romantic turn of mind. At the age of thirteen the author was entered in the freshman class of Yale College but seems neither to have been fond of

study or to have any indications of his future greatness. At the end of his third collegiate year he left school, tired of the restraint and of study, and entered the United States navy, where he remained two years. On board the "Sterling" he was promoted, first to midshipman, and later to lieutenant.

In 1811 he was married to Miss De Lancy, sister of Bishop De Lancy, of New York, and removed to Mamaroneck, and it was not until several years after this that, reading from an English novel, he exclaimed to his wife, as he yawned over its pages, "I could write a better novel," and it is said that her quiet answer, "You had better try," gave him his first idea of authorship. A few weeks of secret labor resulted in the first few chapters of "Precaution." It was published anonymously, and not acknowledged until several years later; indeed it is said, he was never at all proud of it. Three years after he published the "Spy," and with this book began his success and his popularity. In Europe the work was even more overwhelmingly popular than in America. From this time forward he devoted himself to literature, and in two years more he produced the "Pioneer." This work is said to have been his favorite, of all he wrote, because, as he remarked, his first was written for the world and the world rejected it; the second was written to compel its notice, and to obtain for it the position that was refused the first. Having gained this, he wrote the third to please himself, and succeeded here also. The next year came the "Pilot," which far out-ran the others, and then in rapid succession followed the "Red Rover" and "Lionel Lincoln;" the last not equal to either of his former works, not even excepting his first. His failure seems again to have roused the spirit of the author and put him to his mettle. The next work took the world by storm. The romance, the sentiment, and the wild excitement of Indian life were never so developed by any one as in his "Last of the Mohicans." It gave him a name in every quarter of the globe, and his "Prairie," which came next, is scarcely, if at all, inferior to it.

In 1828 he went abroad with his family, residing in Europe until 1833. Mr. Cooper, though not a politician, was a most passionate lover of home, and a jealous lover, too. His keen perception of the light estimate placed upon his country and his countrymen, and the false interpretations and slanders so common

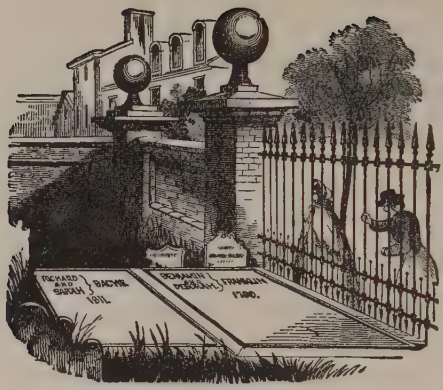
in Europe at the time, cast upon her, as he believed, a degree of odium that was unendurable. Like a gallant but overhasty knight he threw down the gauntlet and took up the pen in defense of his "lady love," and in this spirit were written "Letters of a Traveling Bachelor," "Residence in Europe," "Home as Found," and the "Mannikins;" all of which it would have been to Mr. Cooper's credit never to have written. Next followed "Bravo," which certainly went far to redeem his lost reputation.

Before he returned home he published the "Wept-of-the-Wish-ton-Wish," "Hieldenmanor," and the "Herdsman of Berne." He became involved in lawsuits which he instituted on account of the too free and too frequent criticisms of his historical work, "Naval History of the United States," and thus, in a measure, lost some of his last years, or rather, the world lost the benefit of his genius. His last finished book was "Ways of the Hour," published in 1850. The next year, while engaged upon a historical novel, his physical powers, always wonderfully strong, suddenly gave way, and to the astonishment and grief of his friends, he died.

Mr. Cooper was a splendid man—tall, finely built, with a most perfectly symmetrical form; generous, even to a fault; kindly and social, a true friend, an honorable enemy. His talents have built for him an imperishable monument, and his name is loved and familiar.

JOHN G. WHITTIER.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER was born in Haverhill, Massachusetts, December, 1807. His family were members of the Society of Friends, and the poet was brought up in that faith, to which he still adheres. He spent the first few



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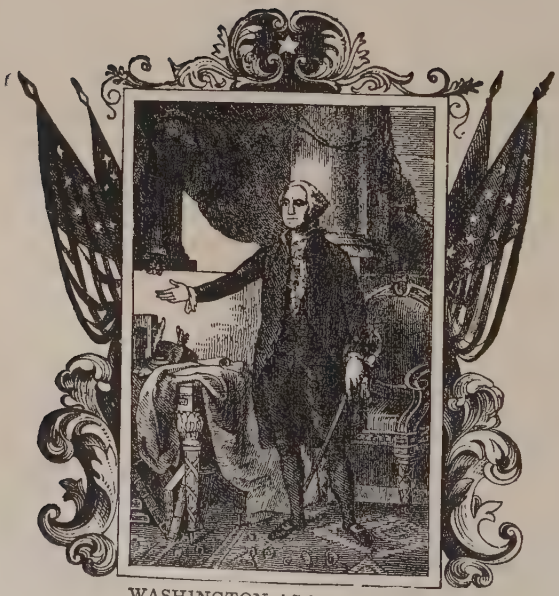


WASHINGTON AS PRESIDENT.

years of his life upon a farm, living, acting, and working after the fashion of farmer boys. At that time he was sent to the town academy two years. In 1829 he became editor of the "American Mechanic," published at Boston, devoted to the maintenance of the tariff, then in the first stages of decline, and threatened with speedy reduction. In 1850 he succeeded George D. Prentice as editor of the New England Review, at Hartford. In the same year he wrote a memoir of Brainerd, to be used as a prefix to a volume of his poetical works. The Legends of New England emanated from his pen at about this time, overflowing with thrilling incidents of the wild life of the early settlers of the continent. From the same fruitful source he drew the material for many of his later poems. "Mogg Megone" and the "Bridal of Pennock" are so strongly marked by the same spirit as to be easily recognizable. He soon returned to the old homestead, and for two years, 1835–36, was a member of the Massachusetts legislature. His political sentiments were in accordance with those of most of the Friends, and he was, if not an abolitionist, at least in sympathy with them.

In 1836 he went to Philadelphia, where he edited the "Pennsylvania Freeman." Several of his best short poems were written at this time. In 1840 Mr. Whittier removed to Amesburg, Massachusetts, and has resided there since. He has devoted his life to literary pursuits, and is one of our most popular poets, with very little of the sensational or sentimental in his writing, but a strong, healthy, earnest tone, different from the sickly trash of some who have even gained a day of popularity—why, one would wonder. His best prose works are "Legends of New England," "Leaves from Margaret Smith's Journal," "Old Portraits and Modern Sketches," and "Literary Recreations." His first poems were published in 1850, and since that time he has published "Songs of Labor, and other Poems;" "The Chapel of the Hermits, and other Poems," and "Home Ballads." His "Songs of Freedom" were also brought out about this time. His "Snow Bound" is an exquisite picture of winter-life, dainty and pure, cold and white, only rich and warm in its coloring and delineation. Another of Whittier's best efforts is the "Tent on the Beach." There is a tone of mournful grandeur—of solemn majesty and of sublimity beyond criticism in its beautiful lines.

You can imagine him lying prone upon the strand, with the boundless blue of heaven above him, from which the clear stars shine out like lamps lit by angel hands; before him the deeper, darker, denser blue of the ocean, with its great dark waves on which lies a crest line of white, soft, feathery foam. You can follow it with your eye as it rolls in and breaks with a sullen, deafening, thundering roar, with a sound like the "voice of many waters." There were with him a few friends, a poet, editor, traveler, one whose weary feet had lingered on every soil beneath the sun and who had turned his face homeward and rested again under the spreading branches of the roof-tree that sheltered him in his boyhood days. Ah! that was long years ago; threads of silver mingle plentifully with his jetty curls now, contrasting with the fire in the eyes that are fierce as an eagle's and yet gentle as those of an Arab girl. Here they wrote, walked, sang and held sweet converse with nature, their own hearts and each other, and here was born, at least in Whittier's brain, the "Tent on the Beach."

You have not forgotten—no one can—his gem written while yet the glare of the red light shone brazen against the western sky, and given to the world while the pall of smoke hung heavy over, the ruins of Chicago, as if in pity, as much as in sullen despair, they veiled the burning of that magnificent city.

"Men said at vespers: 'All is well!'
In one wild night the city fell;
Fell shrines of prayer and marts of gain,
Before the fiery hurricane."

WASHINGTON IRVING.

WASHINGTON IRVING was born in New York, April 3rd, 1783, and died at his residence in Sunnyside, November 28th, 1859. He had but an ordinary education, and his school days ended when he was fifteen years old. He had brothers older than himself who were literary men, and he gave indications, before his school days were over, of the promise which afterwards made him so favorite an author. At sixteen he began the study of law. This, however, was a mere form, and a useless one too, for he was so utterly destitute of system, so impulsive and changeable in his moods, that he could not bear the confinement, and the dull, musty volumes of lore disgusted his mind.

His brother, Dr. Peter Irving, edited the "Morning Chronicle," and for that paper Irving wrote a series of sketches upon every subject, over the signature of "Jonathan Oldstyle." In 1804 symptoms of pulmonary consumption drove him abroad. Added to, or perhaps stronger than, his desire for health was his eager, insatiate desire, amounting almost to passion, to visit foreign lands. Leaving New York in May, he passed through France, visited Naples, and in Rome passed many happy months with Allison, the painter. He fell so deeply in love with art that he believed, for a time, that he had mistaken his calling, and should have been an artist. Everywhere the eye of the young American scanned European life and manners closely, and his active mind stored for future use many a bit of romance or little episode to be wrought over by imagination for future use.

In 1806, after nearly three years abroad, he returned to New York, and resumed the study of what he was pleased to term his "profession," and actually made such proficiency that he was admitted to the bar in due course of time. He did not love law —there was no use in trying to believe it; he could not endure it, and he turned to the flowery fields of literature, to his own de-

light and the disgust of the more practical of his friends. American literature was just then below par; in fact, an American author was in the disgraceful position of a prophet at home, literally without honor. His first articles were a sort of partnership affair, in which both his brother and John R. Paulding had a share in the making, and the lion's share of the spoils, if spoils there were any. Irving was at that time, and indeed always, a spasmodic writer; must work when, as he expressed it, the "fit was on, or not at all." A serial was published by them, entitled "Salmagundi, or the Whim-Whams of Launcelot Longstaff, Esq., and Others." This was very popular, and each number was hailed with delight, though the modest young authors declared their only intention was "to simply instruct the young, reform the old, correct the town, and castigate the age." The work became one of much more importance than they had imagined it would, and was a favorite for its keen wit and rich humor. Blackwood spoke favorably of it; what better lease of life could it ask? Two years later was announced a "History of New York, from the beginning of the World to the end of the Dutch Dynasty." It is said that the "sell" was complete and the parody was read as a veritable history. Irving was no less a favorite with English readers than with the Americans, though an ill-natured critic "over the sea" has intimated *too* plainly that he made more use of Dean Swift than he had any legitimate right to. As a delineator of scenery and character, perhaps Irving has had few equals; in the latter he resembled Dickens, in the former, Cooper. For some years after the Knickerbocker history, his pen lay idle, and he made no attempt to produce anything. With one of those revulsions of feeling peculiar to himself, he seemed to have lost his taste for anything of the kind.

In 1810 he wrote a biographical prefix for a volume of Thomas Campbell's Poetical Works, and in 1813–14 he edited the "Analytic Magazine," in Philadelphia, and published in it the lives of Commanders in the American Navy. They are the best of the kind ever given to the world, and if he had never written anything else, history would still be indebted to him for them. In 1814 he became an aid on Gen. Tompkins' staff, and at the close of the war, went to Europe and remained seventeen years, although the visit was at first intended to be short. He formed many

pleasant friendships there, and was much with Sir Walter Scott, whom he admired and loved tenderly. While in Edinburgh he learned of the financial failure of the mercantile house in which his money was invested, and henceforth his talents must win his bread. His "Sketch Book" was written abroad; also "Brackenridge Hall, or the Humorists." His "Tales of a Traveller," were written in Paris, and the writer's well earned reputation made it as popular as might justly be expected. From Spain he gave the world the "Chronicles of the Conquest of Grenada," and "The Alhambra," which is doubtless the finest galaxy of word paintings in the English language.

In 1842 he was appointed Minister to Spain, and filled the post four years. It is impossible to notice all his works, or to criticise even the most prominent. They are so full of genuine humor—so witty, yet kind and gentle, so rare in coloring, that even in his satires and burlesques is nothing to wound those who may be caricatured, and if an age or an individual fancies that "the coat fits him," he puts it on, laughing at the sweet-tempered, sunny, genial spirit of him who cut and made it for him. As a historian he is well known, and his writings are standard works in every library. He was never married, although once devotedly attached to a young lady who died ere the day which had been set for their marriage, arrived. For some years before his death he resided at his home at "Sunnyside," surrounded by a host of friends and relatives who were, scarcely more than the world, bereaved by his sudden death.

CUVIER.

GEORGE CUVIER, the most eminent Naturalist in modern times, was born August 23, 1769, at Montbelaird, Switzerland. His father was a distinguished officer in a Swiss corps in the pay of France.

Cuvier was intended for the church and, from the poverty of his parents, was a candidate for admission to the free school of Tubingen. Cuvier first began his anatomical collection, of a few skeletons tied together like so many fagots, in the lumber-room of the College.

Circumstances by degrees contributed to the success of Cuvier's labors. Wherever French armies marched, it was their pride to collect whatever might enrich the increasing collections at Paris; and under the directions of Cuvier, the numerous contributions thus received were arranged according to the system which his eloquent lectures explained. By labors which knew little intermission, and with the help of these daily increasing stores, he was enabled to lay the foundations of Comparative Anatomy, to make the discovery of ancient Zoology, and to introduce a reform throughout the whole series of the Animal Kingdom. The death of M. Daubenton, in 1799, opened the way for the succession of Cuvier as professor at the College of France; and thus he discharged the double duty of teaching Natural Philosophy at the latter institution, and lecturing on Comparative Anatomy at the Jardin des Plantes. It is painful to state that his pecuniary remuneration for this great labor was neither commensurate in amount nor regular in its payment.

In 1800, Cuvier commenced his celebrated "Lectures on Comparative Anatomy," which were completed in five years. His skill in delineating forms was so great, and the rapidity and exactness with which he produced them so extraordinary, that it seemed to his pupils as if he rather created living objects than inanimate representations. He did not consider the whole organic structure of each animal separately, but examined an individual organ through the whole series of animals in succession It was by this method that he was ultimately led to the revealment of an order of facts illustrative of the theory of the earth.

To his researches into Fossil remains, Cuvier ever attached the utmost importance. His writings on these and other subjects are

indeed so numerous, that it is impossible for us even to attempt a list of them. His labors increased with his years in magnitude and diversity, but only to show the extent of his capacity.

The extraordinary talents of Cuvier, blended as they were with so much dignity of character and so much experience, were indispensable to France under all the successive changes of government which happened during his lifetime. The Consulate, the Imperial Government, the Restoration, the Monarchy of July, did but anew direct public attention to the civil services of a man whose attainments and sagacity were for all time.

After the restoration, Louis XVIII. bestowed on him the dignity of Councilor of State, and he was thus called on to take a considerable share in the internal administration of his country, as President of the Committee of the Interior, an office which involved him in endless details of business. In 1818 he visited England for six weeks, and during his absence from Paris had the distinguished honor of being created one of the forty of the *Académie Francaise*. In 1819 he was named Grand-Master of the University, and in the same year was created a Baron. In 1826 Charles X. bestowed on him the decoration of grand officer of the Legion of Honor, and his old sovereign, the King of Wurtemburg, about the same time made him commander of the order of the Crown. During the same year he lost the favor of the Court, by steadily refusing the appointment of Censor of the Press; but he incurred a much heavier dispensation in the loss of his only remaining child, Clemantine, a beautiful young woman, on the eve of marriage.

In 1830 he again visited England along with his step-daughter, Mademoiselle Duvancel, and they happened to be in London during the Revolution of the Barricades. On his return to Paris, Cuvier was most graciously received by Louis Phillipe, by whom he was, in 1832, created a Peer of France. But he lived not long to enjoy his dignity. On the 9th of May he was attacked by partial paralysis in his arms, and aware in what it was to terminate, made his will. To M. Pasquier, who saw him on the 12th, he remarked: "I had great things still to do. All was ready in my hand. After thirty years of labor and research, there remained but to write, and now the hands fail to carry with them the head." He expired May 13th, 1832.

WILLIAM B. ASTOR.

THE RICHEST MAN IN AMERICA.

WILLIAM B. ASTOR died in New York, the 24th of November, 1875, of pneumonia, in the 84th year of his age.

John Jacob Astor, the father of William B. Astor, was born in Heidelberg, and coming to this country in early life, embarked in the fur trade and amassed a fortune. William B. Astor was born at 149 Broadway, on the 19th of September, 1792. There his father carried on his business as furrier, and lived with his family in the same house. Six years after the birth of the future millionaire, the elder Astor, having accumulated between $200,000 and $300,000, hired a house at 223 Broadway, the site of the existing Astor House, and moved into it with his family, retaining the premises in the lower part of the city as a place of business only. From a very early period of his life, William B. Astor was his father's principal assistant. He learned the fur business thoroughly, and acquired, too, those habits of industry, perseverance, and economy which finally made him the Rothschild of America. His father intrusted the trade he had built up so well almost wholly to the management of his son, so that the latter may be said to have himself accumulated much of the fortune accruing to him when John Jacob Astor died.

After some years the old fur trader began to send his wares to China, receiving in return consignments of tea, a business that soon became enormously profitable. John Jacob Astor doubled his already large fortune in a very short time. Hitherto his son had received no book education beyond what he had been able to give himself in the few hours snatched from the pursuits of his business. But now his father, realizing that the future management of his increasing business must, to continue successful, be intrusted to one possessed of a better education than he had given

his son, sent him to the university of his native town, Heidelberg. There the young student made excellent use of his opportunities, learning fast, and obtaining numerous honors in the college. He became a thorough German linguist, a branch of knowledge which subsequently was of inestimable service to him. He was also an accomplished musician, and, like all German students of that day, and indeed, of our time, he became a skillful swordsman. He remained in Germany several years, and returned to America only when his father felt his presence indispensable to the management of his business, now swollen to colossal proportions.

William B. Astor had not lost his taste for business, and after traveling entirely over Europe which at that time was by no means the simple journey of to-day, he returned to New York, and once more entered the fur store. His uncle, Henry Astor, in whom was the same aptitude in amassing money that seems to have characterized every member of the family, had accumulated a vast fortune. He was greatly attached to his nephew, and on his death he bequeathed to him $500,000. This legacy did not tempt William B. Astor to forsake his father's business. He invested the money, and carried on the fur trade with greater energy than ever. His father's increasing age and infirmities rendered his attention to the business uncertain, and finally almost the entire management fell upon the son. Out of the profits of his trade John Jacob Astor had purchased the site upon which his dwelling in Broadway was built, and in 1835 he built the Astor House on it, and transferred the whole property to his son. Soon afterward he gave him the residence in Lafayette place adjoining the Astor Library.

In 1848 John Jacob Astor died, at the age of eighty-three or eighty-four years, leaving an estate valued at upward of $20,000,000.

The institution with which William B. Astor's name is popularly identified is the Astor Library. The original fund for founding it was $400,000, of which $100,000 was for the site, building, and purchase of books, and $180,000 was to be used from time to time to increase the library. The remainder was to constitute a reserve fund. Since the institution was founded upward of $900,000

has been expended on it, and William B. Astor, out of his private funds gave Mr. Cogswell, former librarian, an annuity of $5,000. The first gift was made in 1859, when the first building was furnished. Afterward Mr. Astor gave the trustees a site of 150 feet deep by eighty feet wide, upon which a second and better building was erected. In 1866 he gave the library $50,000, of which $20,000 was invested in books. Among the original trustees of the library were William B. Astor, Washington Irving, Joseph C. Cogswell, and Fitz Greene Porter.

Mr. Astor was a much more liberal man than was generally supposed, but he gave unostentatiously, and many of the charities benefited by his benefactions never knew the giver of the most liberal gifts. On one subscription list, in possession of Mr. Isaac H. Brown, appears the entry $250 from "the son of a Mason;" the giver was Mr. Astor, who was not a Mason himself, though his father had been an active member of the order.

William B. Astor's eldest brother was a person of eccentricities, and could not be trusted alone. His tutor was appointed his guardian at a handsome salary and attended him wherever he went. He was often very violent in his dealings with those with whom he came in contact, and his quarrels with his guardian were frequent. He was secluded from society as far as possible, and was for a long time confined in his house at Fourteenth street and Ninth avenue, and there died a few years ago.

William B. Astor lived, for a long time, in Lafayette place, in a mansion adjoining the Astor Library. He owned 2,500 houses and building lots in the city, and his total wealth was recently estimated at $150,000,000.

Mr. Astor had more improved real estate than any four men in New York, excluding William Rhinelender, the Goelets, A. T. Stewart, and the Beekmans. Most of the large tenement houses around Tompkins square and along First avenue and Avenues A and B belong to the Astor estate, as also do whole blocks in Sixth avenue, from Sixteenth street to Fortieth street. The old Bowery Theatre and the old Park Theatre were on his land. He was always ready to buy real estate where he could get it cheap. It was his rule never to sell any of his houses or lots. He leased the most

of his lots for twenty-one years, with the stipulation that the lessee should build on them. On the expiration of the leases the buildings reverted to him with the lots.

None of William B. Astor's property was insured. He believed like Mr. Stewart that the cost of insurance would be greater than his losses. The terms of his father's will prohibited the building of brown-stone houses, as they were too extravagant. He strictly abided by this rule, aud the brown-stone houses that he owned he bought from others, as they reverted to him on the expiration of leases. The most of the residences that he built on Madison and Fifth avenues and Thirty-third and Thirty-fourth streets in recent years were of Nova Scotia free stone or brick with stone trimmings. Mr. Astor attended personally to the rental of his real estate, and was assisted by his sons and agents, Mr. Hallock and Mr. Bruce. His office was at 85 Prince street, and he went to the office every day up to 4 days before his death. He retired Mr. Bruce on a pension. In 1870 Mr. Astor paid two million dollars taxes on his houses and lots.

Wm. B. Astor married Margret, daughter of Gen. Armstrong who filled many positions of honor, among those of Minister to France and Secretary of War. By her he had three sons, John Jacob, William and Henry, and two daughters, Mrs. Carey and Mrs. Delano. All these survived him.

Mr. Astor never held a public office. His whole life was spent in the management of his fortune.

Henry, the youngest son, inherited the estate of his uncle, John Jacob, six years ago. He married the daughter of a poor farmer in Barrytown, Duchess county, against the wishes of his relatives. Since his marriage he retired to a place near Hudson, and he rarely goes to the city, although the most ot his property is there.

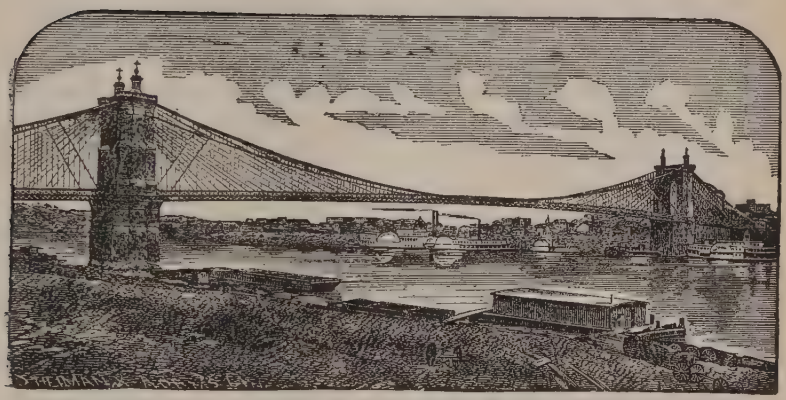
It has been the custom of the Astor family for three generations to deposit one hundred thousand dollars in bank at the birth of a son or daughter, the money and the interest to be given to the child when he or she became of age.

The world has heard little of Mr. Astor; he never mingled in politics nor connected himself with the public questions of the day. For a space of about thirteen years prior to 1873 he was engaged in extensive building operations, until at the expiration of that time nearly all of the property which had been purchased by him in an improved condition was built upon. His rent rolls were enormous. He became the great landlord of the great city, and was said eight years ago to own 720 houses. As a landlord he gained the reputation of a prompt, obliging business-like man, and his affairs were conducted in a little dingy office in Prince street, without either display or confusion He was faithful to his clerks as they were to him, and there were some who had spent long lives in the service of father and son. Mr. Astor also invested largely in the stock of several railroads, as the Harlem, New York Central, Pennsylvania, Delaware & Lackawanna and others, in various coal companies and in several insurance companies. The good fortune which has seemed to attend the accumulation of this great property, besides the peculiar business tact, was seen in his withdrawal from several insurance companies shortly before the Chicago fire, thereby saving himself from considerable loss. But a short time before that fire he began to dispose of that kind of stock, and in one instance, at least, sold his stock in a fire insurance company only one week before the great fire, thus escaping serious loss.

Mr. Astor's business habits were fixed and regular. Every working day that he was in the city he called at his office in Prince street, and received the reports of his subordinates, and examined papers which required his signature. He was plain in his attire averse to show of all kinds, and of a retiring disposition. If a subscription paper was brought to him, he would request that other signatures be procured, and then bring it back to him to sign. He was careful not to give offence by speaking roughly to those with whom he was brought in contact. He was genial to those with whom he was intimate, but he did not encourage advances from others. For many years past he has contributed to various charitable institutions in a quiet way, giving from $1,000 to $5,000 each, but not desiring that the fact should be made

public. The most noteworthy of his gifts was that of $50,000, made to aid St. Luke's Hospital, several years ago. He was a regular attendant of Grace Church.

Considering his advanced years, Mr. Astor was a man of great physical vigor, his mind clear, and his faculties unimpaired. He was the sole survivor of the children of John Jacob Astor.

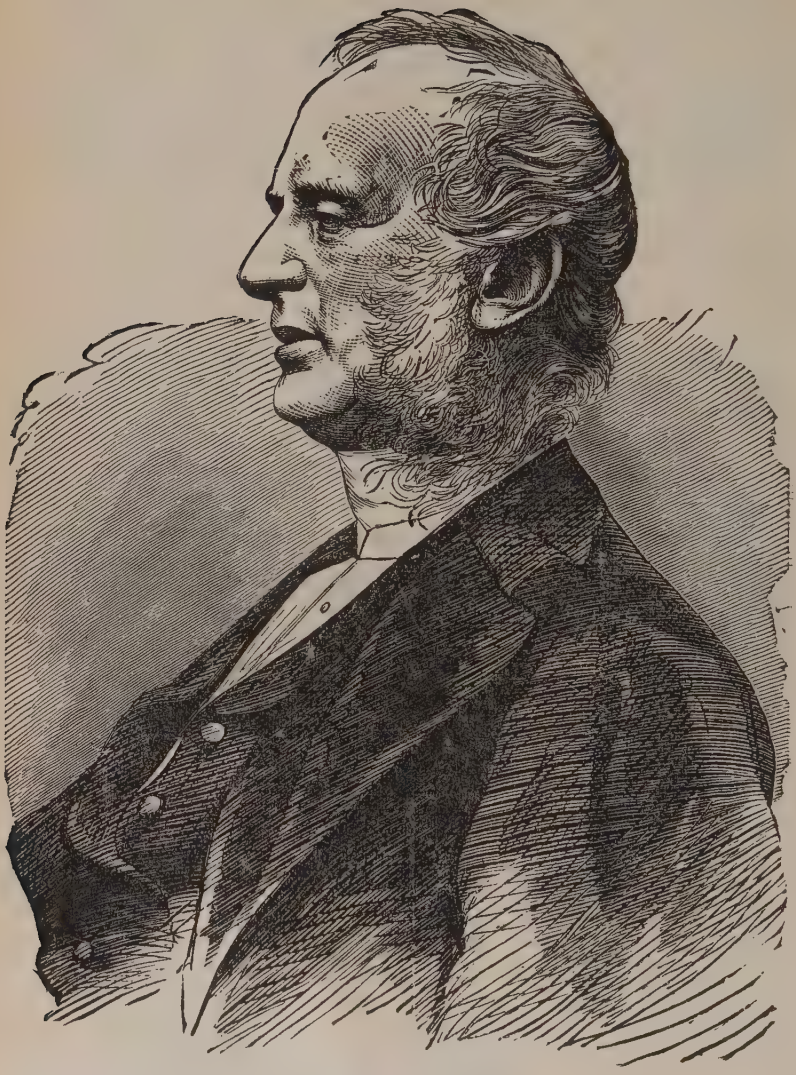


Cincinnati and Covington Suspension Bridge.

View taken from the Covington Side of the River.

DIMENSIONS:

Main Span, 1057 feet.
Length of Bridge, 2252 feet.
Height from Low Water, 100 feet.
Height of Towers, 230 feet.
Towers, at base, 86 by 52.
In the two cables are 10,360 wires.
Diameter of the Cables, 12¼ inches, weighing one million pounds.
Amount of Lumber, 500,000 feet.
Strength of Bridge, 16,300 tons.
Width of Bridge in the clear, 36 feet.
Total cost, $1,750,000.



COMMODORE VANDERBILT.

CORNELIUS VANDERBILT.

IN a low, brown farm-house, on Staten Island, covered with moss, and embowered in vines and shrubbery, Cornelius Vanderbilt was born—and there in his island home, where the waves murmured soft lullabys, and the ebb and flow of the tide marked the hours of the day and night, he grew up a sturdy, active boy, who seems, even in childhood, to have had a very good idea of the value of money, and a knack for making it. He was fond of a boat and "took to the water as naturally as a duck does." At twelve years of age we find him entrusted with a man's work, in superintendence of the removal of freight from a lighter to the city. He was always anxious to be a sailor, but as his mother opposed his wishes, he was obliged to give it up for a while; still his love for the water was so great that at last he carried the day, became the possessor of a boat, and worked steadily and faithfully. He formed no bad habits, contracted no vices, and laid up all his money. During the war of 1812, the harbor defenses were fully manned and a large number of boats were constantly in port, and between these and the city a stream of passengers, giving steady work to the young man, who profited by it to the best advantage. In 1814 our whole eastern sea coast was guarded against an attack from England, the militia was called out, and forced, under heavy penalty, to serve; and about the same time the commissary called for bids from the seamen to convey military stores to the different ports—six in number—where soldiers were stationed. The contractor was to be exempt from military duty. Of course every seaman in the port sent in a bid, most of them at the most absurd prices, not intended, or expected to cover the expenses, but simply to exempt them from duty. Vanderbilt did not at once send in a bid, but at last, to satisfy his father, made an estimate which would give him a moderate profit, and sent it in, and to his surprise it was accepted. The work was

done to the entire satisfaction of the commissioners, and Vanderbilt made enough money to build the schooner "Dred," the daintiest little thing that ever shot over the blue waters.

In 1818 he turned his attention to steamboat navigation, which now seemed to be establishing itself beyond doubt or question, and when satisfied that it must supercede everything on the water, he gave up his now flourishing business and took the position of captain on a steamer owned by Captain Gibbons. His friends were astonished at this movement, but he looked more to the future than the present, and moved on in opposition to their views. He had charge of the steamers through all those long, vexatious troubles between the courts and the steamboat proprietors, and for seven years was harrassed, annoyed and impeded in every way. The State of New York had granted to Fulton and Livingston the sole right to navigate the waters of New York, and Mr. Gibbons, being of opinion that the grant was unconstitutional, determined to run his line in defiance of it, or until it was proven, at least. The supreme court at last decided that point, leaving every channel of navigation open to all. In 1827 Mr. Vanderbilt left the service of Mr. Gibbons, and built his first steamer, the "Caroline," and after the opposition which the comparatively young and poor meet in competing with the rich and strong, he established his line safely and firmly, and made his way gradually in the business until he stood at the head of steamboat interests in the United States. He has, perhaps, controlled more money in that way than any other man. Even those who had been established for years in the business, dreaded the young giant whose energy and determination rendered him almost invincible. It is related of Mr. Collins, that when his ocean steamer, the "Arctic," was lost, he asked to be allowed to run his magnificent "North Star" in its place, until such time as Mr. Collins could replace his own, and was not only refused, but his offer was declined in terms so insulting that Mr. Vanderbilt declared to him that he would run his line off the ocean if it took all the years of his life and every farthing of his fortune, and he kept his word; still, as to whether his course was the most honorable or not, we do not presume to judge. He at once applied to the government to give him the mail to carry, pledging himself to carry it quicker and more regularly than it had ever been done before, without one cent of

subsidy. The offer was accepted, and Collins' magnificent line went to ruin and its owner into bankruptcy. There is no doubt but this might have been avoided by a wise liberality on Mr. Collins' part, or even by the outstretching of a kind hand to one who had had so much to contend with and struggle against.

At the time of the rebellion Commodore Vanderbilt was one of the stanchest defenders and supporters of the government; as unselfish as patriotic, as honest as fearless. When the navy department was in need of gunboats, he equipped his magnificent steamer, the "Vanderbilt," and offered it to them at very low terms; but learning that an enormous per cent. of the purchase money would have to go into the hands of the "sharks," who stood between himself and the government, he withdrew his offer, saying his boat was not for sale, and, making a thorough investigation to know that it was in perfect order, presented it to the government. It was a noble, generous thing, and can not be forgotten.

On Wall street Mr. Vanderbilt is one of "the powers that be," and though not quite so demonstrative or blustering as some of New York's money kings, his word is law in many departments of commerce; and his judgment is unsurpassed. He is a regular attendant at Dr. Hutton's Church, on Washington Square, and a warm personal friend of the pastor. In his domestic life sorrow has come to him, as it comes to every one, and the shadow of the messenger of death has darkened his hearthstone as remorselessly and mercilessly as that of the humblest cottage in the land. One noble boy died during the late war—died as did those who had dedicated their lives to the preservation of the Union. His wife, the loving and patient sharer of his years of toil, and of the success that rewarded them, was taken from him two years ago. Recently he has married again. Mr. Vanderbilt is considered one of the handsomest men of his age in New York; and is a living illustration of the truth of the saying of the wise man, "The hand of the diligent maketh rich."

ALEXANDER T. STEWART.

NO name is more familiar to the American public than that of A. T. Stewart, and none shine brighter in the galaxy of self-made men,—those who by patient, tireless, persevering industry, and unimpeachable honesty, have won mammoth fortunes. He was born in Belfast, Ireland, in 1802, and was educated by his grandfather, his own parents having died while he was an infant. The intention was to fit him for the church, but his grandfather dying while he was only in his second year, the idea was abandoned, and he embarked for the New World. Fortunately he was not compelled to come destitute to America, as do so many of his countrymen, but with a sum of money which was sufficient to meet his wants. For some time he tried in vain to obtain work, and at last accepted a position as assistant in a small commercial school, but not liking the work, for which he had neither taste nor adaptation, he opened a dry goods store in New York. Of course, his first effort was made in a very small way; but he was patient almost to humility, and knew it would be uphill work to establish himself in a city where rich and prosperous merchants already held the ground. He had no special business capacity, no extraordinary talents, nothing peculiar about him, but his extreme youth; for he was only twenty years old. On reaching his majority he received a small inheritance, amounting to about one thousand pounds, with which he extended his business. He worked unremittingly; he filled every office, from porter to proprietor; he gave every moment and every thought to business. His goods were almost always bought at auction, small, cheap lots of everything, and pressed, dressed, and sorted over by himself and his wife after business hours, then sold lower than at first or even third rate houses, yet at a fair profit to himself. Unswerving honesty was his constant rule, both in buying and selling goods—he gave no advantage consciously—he would take none. Another rule was, one price, from which there

was no demur and no deviation. His law was as unchangeable as were those of the Medes and Persians.

On one occasion while still struggling to gain a foothold on the road that leads to success, he was, for the first time in his mercantile life, without the means to meet a note that was near maturity. He had no credit; if he would he could not borrow the money; times were very hard, the market dull, and money scarce. To fail to meet it would be ruin, and once down how could he ever rise again? He cast about for ways and means, and soon hit upon the plan of offering his goods at a price but little, if any, in advance of cost; and with this in view he had hundreds of large posters printed and scattered the length and breadth of the city. This course had the desired effect; throngs filled his little store, and long before the note was due, almost every dollar's worth of goods was disposed of, and the money was in his pocket. He "lifted" his note, and had enough money left to buy a new stock. From the small, old-fashioned store he had occupied he was obliged to remove to a larger and more fashionable one on Broadway, and his stock of goods was increased in quantity and quality to suit the stylish and elegant people who were his customers. It is said that he noticed how apt the ladies were to trifle and chat with the clerks, and that they invariably purchased more goods of the handsome, than of the plain ones; accordingly he filled his store with the finest looking young men that he could find, and from the first the plan was successful, his trade was immensely advanced. When the war broke out, he sent a company who were known all over the States as "Stewart's lily fingered regiment," but they were brave boys, and never flinched or swerved from meeting either hardship, privation or suffering. In the great crisis of 1837, many a stanch barque, that had breasted storm and disaster, went down, but Stewart was fully established, both in business and reputation, and profiting by the necessities of those who must sell at any loss, to save themselves at all, he bought largely of confiscated goods, that at the very lowest prices, and selling at low figures, still made a handsome profit for himself.

For some time before the war broke out, he saw the trouble in the distance, and saw, too, what the probable ending must be, and accordingly began to enter into contract with many of the leading manufacturers of the north and east, for such goods as must

necessarily be in great demand for the army. When at last the storm did break, the government found that Stewart had monopolized and controlled nearly all the blankets, flannels, woolen goods, &c., which had been or could be manufactured for some time to come, and that it was with him they must treat. It is said that he never took advantage of this, but that his dealings with the government were uniformly fair and just,—even more, that they were exceedingly liberal.

Upon General Grant's election to the Presidency, it was his wish that Mr. Stewart, who was a warm personal friend of his, should become one of his cabinet, and he was nominated to the position of Secretary of the Treasury; but when he was about to enter upon the duties of his office, some person, who doubtless wished the office either for himself or a friend, brought forward an old, but not obsolete law, forbidding a merchant from becoming the head of the treasury department. There is no question but that Mr. Stewart, although no politician, earnestly desired the position, and was willing to make any sacrifice to obtain it, for he immediately proposed to give up his immense interest in the business, and to devote the entire profits for the period of his official term to the poor of New York. We do not believe so magnificent an offer was ever made before or since, or that history will ever record another such, unless indeed it be the princely Stewart who repeats it. We have always felt that the country was an immense loser by the administration's tame acceptance of this state of affairs, and, had Grant shown at the time the spirit which he was then supposed to have, millions might have been saved to the nation, for there is little doubt but A. T. Stewart is one of the wisest financiers in America.

Other great men we have,—other self-made millionaires—other men, hosts of them too,—who laid with their own hands the stepping stones on which they crossed the slough of poverty —more frightful than Bunyon's "slough of despond,"—and made their way, unaided even by kind or cheering words from friend or brother man, up the hill to the summit of prosperity; but while we give credit to whom credit is due, and reverence with something that is akin to adoration, this strong reliance in *self*—this unbending will, this fixed purpose and determination to succeed, which will bring a man off more than conqueror, even though fate itself

seems in league against him—which we recognize and pay homage to whenever met; yet for this high qualitity, Stewart leads off most gloriously. There may be dozens of Astors and Rothschilds, but there is only one Stewart. His palaces are the admiration of the world, and to visit New York without going through his establishment would be to miss one of the grandest sights. We cannot afford to go into detail, it would be tiresome to you and require too much space, but a few items will give you some idea of the extent of his business.

There are twenty-two hundred persons regularly employed in the different departments of his store on the corner of Tenth Street and Broadway, and the cash receipts range from sixty to eighty-five thousand dollars per day. His duties on imported goods are thirty thousand dollars per day, in gold, and he is unquestionably the heaviest importer in the world; for his business is as steadily increasing now as it was ten years ago, leaving the bewildered looker-on to wonder what it will be, or where it will end? In the personal appearance of Mr. Stewart, there is nothing remarkable. He is of medium hight, rather slender, with brown hair and beard, regular features, a rather stern, thoughtful face; his manners are cold, reserved, but not harsh or repellant. We look upon his life, so far as we are acquainted with it, both public and private, as one of the finest models that can be held up to the young men of our land. No under-handed trickery has soiled its pages; no selfish or unprincipled speculations have blotted a line; no mean treachery or chicanery has left upon its margin finger-marks which can not be erased. He is now about sixty years of age, but hale and strong as at forty, and we hope he may long be spared to enjoy the wealth and honor he has won so fairly.

Mr. Stewart pays about $120,000 in taxes on his real estate in New York city. His wholesale store is assessed at $1,150,000 and taxed $32,200; his retail store assessed at $850,000 pays $23,800, and he pays $16,800 on his house on Fifth avenue, which is assessed at $600,000.

DANIEL DREW.

DANIEL DREW.

THE name of this king of enterprise is as familiar to the public as that of any man who has figured before us for many years. His success in life, and the immense fortune which he has amassed, are owing entirely to the energy with which he has applied himself to anything he undertakes and his good common sense and excellent judgment.

In early life he was a farmer boy; later he kept the famous Bull's Head Tavern, which was a favorite resort of the butchers and drovers doing business in the city. He formed a partnership with two of these drovers, and bought up cattle, which were driven to the city for sale. The ventures were small, the profits were large, and business was extended and increased as fast as the means of the company would permit. He continued in this business fourteen years and managed, by close attention to his own interests, and by the practice of great economy, to lay up quite a snug little property. In 1834 the steamer "General Jackson," owned by Jacob Vanderbilt, was blown up at Grassy Point, and a friend of Mr. Drew's at once put another on the river in its place. Mr. Drew loaned the means necessary to put this enterprise through, and finally became owner of the boat. Commodore Vanderbilt was already King of the river, and resented this encroachment on what he was pleased to style "his premises"; and, putting a new boat in the place of the old one, prepared himself for the "tug of war." Both were men of mettle; both stood their ground; both resolved that they would carry it to the bitter end, let it cost what it would. The consequences were, that both lost heavily, but two lines were established instead of one. In 1836 Mr. Drew, now of the firm of Drew, Kelly & Richards, replaced the "Water Witch," their first boat, by a fine steamer called the "Westchester," and they also bought the "Bright Emerald" and the "Rochester," paying the sum of seventy-five thousand dollars for the two; then, reducing the fare to ridi-

culously low figures, ran a strong opposition to the Hudson River Line. This company has bought and built some of the most magnificent and costly steamers which have ever floated on any waters in the world. The "Dean Richmond" and the "Drew" cost over seven hundred thousand dollars apiece, and though everybody looked wise and shook their heads and prophesied ruin for them, they went on in the even tenor of their way; and by good management and fair dealing, not only kept their heads above water, but made money, and actually bought out the Hudson River line, which had opposed them so strongly at first.

In 1847 Mr. Drew formed a partnership with George Law and established a line between Stonington and New York. In 1852 the Hudson River railroad was completed and the greatest consternation was felt among steamboat men, as all declared it must inevitably ruin the water trade, that it was folly to attempt to compete with land travel. Mr. Drew believed to the contrary. Of course it would be necessary to reduce the fare and freight and thus offer extra inducements; but his business was immense, and if necessary, he knew he could afford to divide it with the R. R. Co. The necessity now came. The River line had all it could possibly do, while the railroad could scarcely push on its freight fast enough, and was obliged constantly to increase its facilities for carrying passengers, to accommodate the extensive travel. In 1836 Mr. Drew commenced operations on Wall street, by opening the well-known banking house of Drew, Robinson & Co., and his success here, as elsewhere, was marked. In 1854 he bought up a large amount of Erie railroad stock, and in 1855 indorsed the acceptance of the same road for five hundred thousand dollars. The world was atonished, and men almost refused to credit the assurance, given officially, that he could double it without any inconvenience to himself. In two years more, he backed the assurance by taking acceptances to the amount of a million and a half of dollars. Mr. Drew was then elected director of the road, and a little later, treasurer. The Erie road became one of the heaviest corporations in the world—indeed it seemed at one time too strong to be a safe power, and threatened to monopolize all railroad interests. The injunctions issued by the New York courts to prevent them from issuing more stock must be still in every mind; also the fact that the Legislature overruled it, and

that compromises were effected between Mr. Vanderbilt, who represented the New York Central, and Mr. Drew, who represented the Erie road.

From Mr. Drew's first speculation on the river to his last on the railroad, he has met Mr. Vanderbilt everywhere. For nearly twenty years their business relations have brought them face to face, again and again, in opposing interests. Often their interests have united, as in the Harlem road, and though at times the feeling of competition may have been carried high and far, no personal bitterness has resulted from it, which is saying much for both. Mr. Drew has been a member of the Methodist Church since 1811; and has ever been ready to help, not only his own, but every religious denomination, with his money or his influence. The elegant church on the corner of Twenty-second Street and Fourth Avenue, New York, was built almost, if not entirely by him. He endowed the Wesleyan University largely, and the Drew Theological Seminary with several hundred thousand dollars. He is one of those rare men, especially rare amongst our great capitalists, who hold their money as a stewardship, for which they must give account. His private charities amount to more than a hundred thousand dollars annually, and his public donations and charities are very large. His property is estimated at over twenty millions of dollars. His success has been very marked, his course has been fair and honest, and his reputation stands high in the community.

ROTHSCHILD.

NATHAN MAYER ROTHSCHILD, the richest man in Europe, was the third of five sons of Mayer Anselm Rothschild, who founded, the first of the present century, the house which bears their name, and which, for a hundred years,

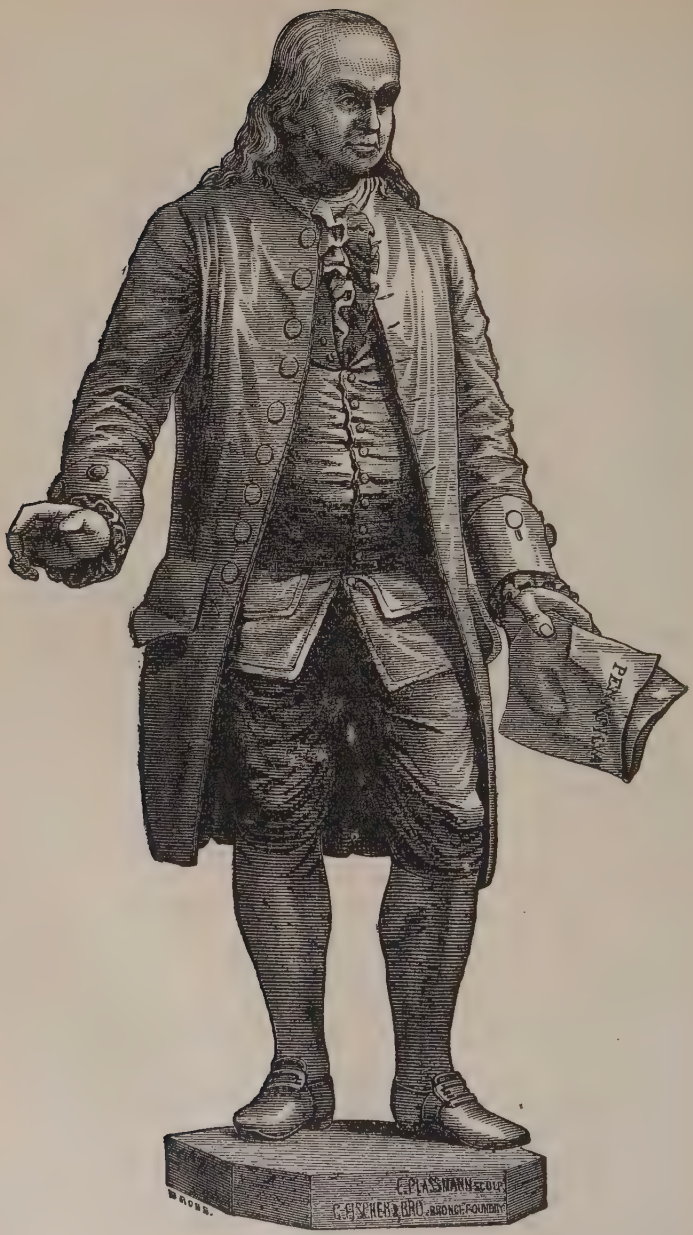
has controlled the financial operations of Europe, thus of the world, in a great measure. Nathan went to England in 1800, and in addition to the immense fortune left him by his father, had large sums placed under his control by the Geneva princes, for whom he was at once banker and financier. Honest and upright in all his dealings, faithful to the interests of those who trusted him, just, to the utmost farthing, and always successful in his enterprises, his wealth rapidly accumulated. Having the co-operation of his brothers, who were established in different cities of Europe, and the funds of almost every heavy capitalist, nothing was too great for him to undertake, and amongst his debtors were almost every government on the continent. Notwithstanding this, he had the excellent faculty of steering clear of bad investments, and there was literally a rivalry as to which of the States should be most in his favor. His transactions in gold and in foreign securities seemed boundless, and if the coffers of Rothschild were locked, the world begged for bullion in vain, until he chose to give it; and again and again in the treasure vaults of Rothschild was the philosopher's stone of Europe. It has long been the custom and pride of the family that none of their fortune shall go out of it by marriage, and from one branch to another, then back, flows the golden stream of marriage settlements. M. Rothschild had gone to Frankfort for the purpose of attending the wedding of his eldest niece, the daughter of his brother Anselm, when he was taken ill and died suddenly, on the 8th of August, 1836.

The Rothschilds are said to be worth $3,400,000,000.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

THE life of Benjamin Franklin is so familiar to every schoolboy in the land, and "Poor Richard's" sayings have so long dropped like golden grains of wisdom from the lips of prophet and sage, as to have indeed passed into proverbs.

From childhood he was quiet and studious, evincing and expressing a perfect contempt for the business of chandler and soap boiler, which his father carried on quite extensively. The boy loved but one thing on earth thoroughly, and that was a book. His father had the good sense to see the great advantage which an education would be to his son, and not having the means to gratify him, sent him to his brother, to learn the printing business, and he was apprenticed in due time and form. He showed considerable literary and poetical talent, and wrote a number of articles which received high compliments from the "literati" of the time. His brother James was a man of the most overbearing and tyrannical nature, and also exceedingly harsh and jealous, suspicious alike of stranger and kinsman, and their relations were by no means of the most agreeable sort. Long before his time of service had expired he broke his bonds in a most unceremonious manner and ran away. He made some effort to get work in Boston, but failing in this, went to New York. Now began, for the first time, the actual battles of life—those battles which he had so longed to go out and engage in, but like many another impetuous young soldier, he found that "distance lends enchantment to the view," and lends a great deal to it, too. In New York, as in Boston, he could get no work, and was referred to Philadelphia as the place where he was most likely to find it. His first visit to the city of Brotherly Love—his scant financial resources—even the story of the baker's rolls, and the picture of the pretty girl who stood in a door and laughed at the odd figure he made, as he lunched from the end of a roll; and how in after years, when he



Benjamin Franklin.

had won for himself fortune and fame, she became his wife,—is as well known as is the story of his whistle.

The first public office which he ever held was that of clerk to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania. Upon the expiration of his term he was re-elected, and served with great acceptance to the people.

Franklin pays the highest tribute to the eloquence of Whitfield, the celebrated English preacher, that we remember. The church in which he labored was very poor, and very sadly in want of a better edifice in which to worship, and from the ease with which he raised the desired fund, together with the enthusiasm that was mingled with the admiration that was felt for him, Franklin, in a spirit of envy or jealousy very much at variance with his usually generous nature, conceived a strong dislike for him. On leaving Philadelphia Mr. Whitfield went to Georgia, doing missionary work for the colonies, whom he found in a dreadfully destitute and suffering condition. Returning to Philadelphia, he told, in the most eloquent and touching manner, of the sad sights he had seen, and appealed to the North for aid. Franklin declares that he did not approve of this, though he does not tell why. On one occasion he says he listened to him, and perceiving that the service would end with a collection, resolved that he would get nothing from him. With this idea he put his hand into his pockets to see what they contained, and found there a quantity of coppers, some silver dollars, and five gold pieces. As the minister proceeded, he thought he would give some of the coppers. More earnestly the man of God preached of that religion which without charity is but "as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal"; and Franklin concluded to give the silver. Another clever stroke—another grand burst of his inimitable oratory—and Franklin's heart warmed and softened toward one whose eloquence was almost divine, and who spoke as man rarely spoke before; and when the contribution was asked, he gave every farthing he had with him, and regretted that he had no more to give.

When the difficulties arose between the mother country and the colonies, Franklin proved himself a most wise and judicious, as well as favorite mediator between them, and he endeavored faithfully to act as peace-maker; but when the oppression became too sore to be borne by our freeborn men, and they threw off the

yoke of British thraldom that they so hated, he was a firm and consistent friend of the feeble government.

Franklin was always remarkable for love of Natural philosophy, and to his experiments we trace back the electric current, from our own magically acting and perfect system of telegraphy.

He filled various political offices, always to the entire satisfaction of the country, and it was in a very large measure owing to his delicate skill that the French government recognized and sympathized with the struggling colonies. His long and useful life was closed on the 17th of April, 1790, and the country mourned as if it had but one heart, for every living being had in him a personal friend, and fully acknowledged the debt they owed him.

ISAAC NEWTON.

THIS celebrated philosopher was born at Woolsthrope, near Colsterworth, Lincolnshire, England, December, 1612. The small estate had been in the family for more than a hundred years. His father died before the birth of his child, and his mother married again when he was two years old; his step-father living only a few years, Isaac was recalled from school and assisted in the management of the farm, but having a deal more taste for water-wheels, models and dials, the farm went into neglect, and the boy was sent back to school in disgrace. In due time he went to Trinity College, and here he took his degree of A. B., and afterwards of A. M.

In 1665 he committed to paper his first idea on fluxions. In 1666 he discovered the unequal refrangibility of light, and the true doctrine of color, but was now driven from Cambridge by the plague, and while resting weary brain and body at Woolsthrope, lying under the shade of the spreading branches of orchard trees

that were older than himself, he formed his first ideas of gravitation from seeing an apple fall from its stem to the ground. In 1669 Newton was appointed Professor of Mathematics in place of Dr. Barrows, at Cambridge, and from this time his most important discoveries date. In this year he gave much attention to the telescope, and in 1672 he announced to the Royal Society a discovery made in the operations of nature, one of the most important ever made. This was the discovery of the composition of light. A paper prepared by him on this subject was read before that Society, and at once attracted the attention of scholars, but unfortunately at the same time drew him into endless and bitter controversies with Hook, Hoygens and several foreign savants. With so much spirit and sharpness, not unmixed with malice, was this carried on, that Newton withdrew from it in disgust, and resolved to turn the cold shoulder to Philosophy, and steel his heart against her fascination. But the man was born to study mysteries—study was as much a part of his life as was breathing, and unconsciously he delved deeper and deeper, giving to the world treasures of truth and knowledge, and in return, such time as he was an hungered and asked for bread, she gave him a stone. He met the reward of genius, but like many another who spurned the pittance which his labor earned, whether it was gold, or the still more precious appreciation that the heart craves, the earnest "well done," which repays for every effort, he toiled on from love of his work.

He had long ago drawn the conclusion, partly from the writings of Kepler, partly from observation, that gravity decreases with the square of the distance, but no demonstration had been given, and no proof obtained that the power of attraction which drew the ripened apple to the earth, was the same power which held the moon and stars in their orbit. Newton worked and puzzled over this in the dark. Every test and measurement left the proof just short of certainty, which to him was worse than actual failure. In 1682 he heard of Picard's measurement of the earth, and taking this plan and using it in connection with his own, found that the force of gravity four thousand miles from the earth's center, when diminished by the square of 240,000 miles, the moon's distance, was exactly equal to that which kept the moon in her orbit. Newton has been accused of plagiarism in presenting his first ideas on

fluxion as his own. It is claimed for Leibnitz, that he had already invented them before Newton published his method. His first article on the subject was written May 20, 1665, and the subject appears never to have left his mind until he made his first small telescope, which he completed and explained to a friend in 1668. If Leibnitz had discovered all this before, neither Newton nor the world were wiser for it at that date, as he had never imparted the knowledge.

When Newton was fifty years of age, it is said that he was the pride of England, and was then appointed warden of the mint, and soon after to the mastership. The honor of knighthood was conferred on him by Queen Anne, and when George I. ascended the throne he was a great favorite at court, where his piety and character had given him an enviable reputation, and the patronage of the Princess of Wales, and by her, unwittingly, Sir Isaac was brought into disgrace through the publication of MSS. given her by himself, and claimed by Leibnitz as embodying only discoveries made by himself prior to Newton's, but the scientific were satisfied that this was incorrect.

He died March 20, 1729, in the eighty-fifth year of his age. His most important works are his "Principia," "Arithmetic Universalis," "Geometrica Analytica," "Treatise on Optics," and "Sections Opticæ," though he published a large number of valuable works upon scientific subjects.

SOCRATES.

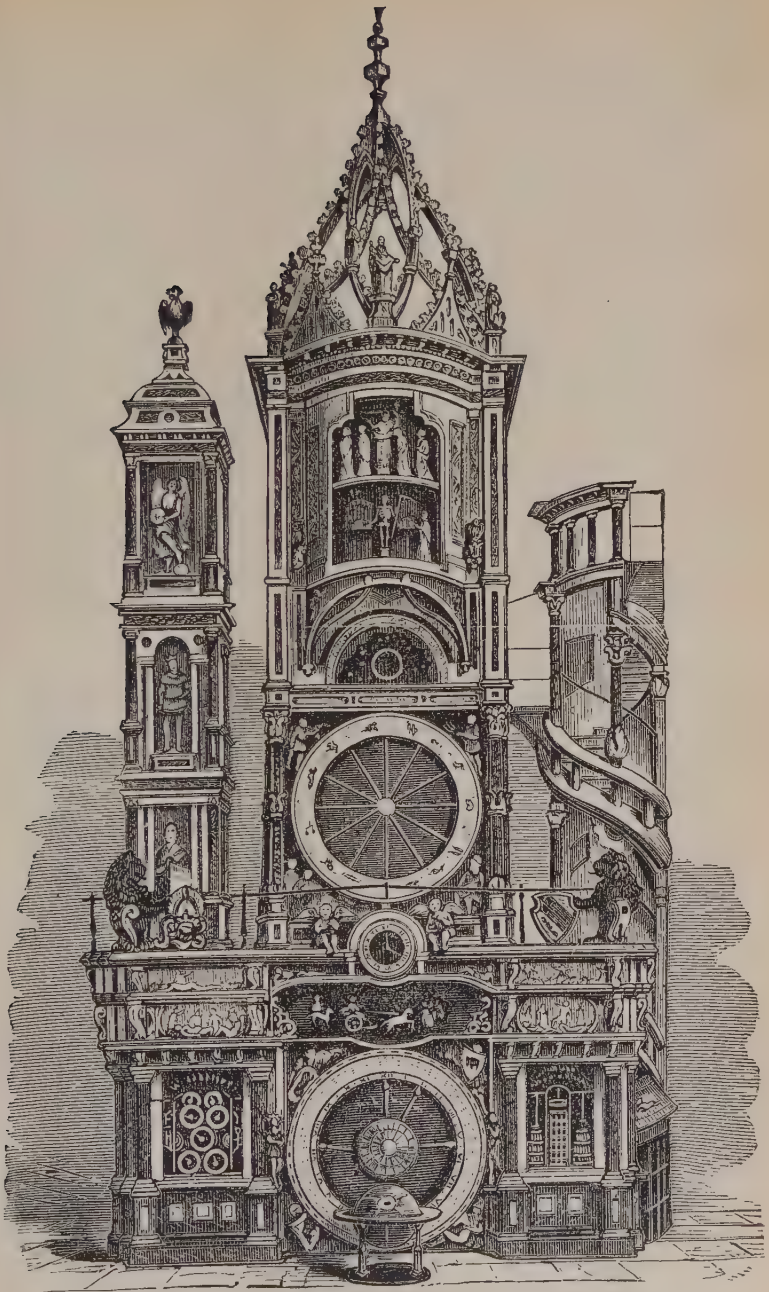
SOCRATES was born at Athens, in the year 469 B. C. His parents were of no rank or authority in the Athenian world; Socrates was not gifted with any of those personal distinctions which then were allowed to take the place of hereditary title or position. A face the very reverse of beautiful, untidy

dress, often unsandaled feet, were the characteristics of the man from whose lips fell gems of rarest wisdom, and whose lips never spoke but in favor of virtue, truth and honor. As a son, he was dutiful and obedient to the parental law; as a citizen, he was rigidly observant of the law of his country; as a moralist, though a heathen, he was faultless in the performance of every duty; looking through the sacrifice, the fasting, the observance of ceremony which constituted the worship of the gods of his people, to the "Unknown God," whose existence, though untaught at that day, yet was felt. There was a consciousness in his life which was neither known nor understood by his countrymen. It is said of him that he was the most just, the most exalted, the completest type of humanity to which classic antiquity with its wonderful creations, ever gave birth—the nearest of all who preceded to a Being we name not here—who, without ambition, or pretence, or external advantage, but through the simple force of moral and intellectual greatness, took unrelaxing hold at once of the heart and mind of the ancient world. No tyranny of custom ever subjected Socrates; no passing years set the seal of age on his heart and mind; no richness and fullness of wisdom clogged the intellect; no experience of sorrow and adversity chilled his affections. In every passing moment of his life was a solemn meaning few ever comprehend. He could not conceal from himself, or from the world, that he had gone deeper than sense, that he looked beyond the range of ordinary vision; that the voices whose whisperings made melody in his soul came from a realm beyond our own. As a teacher of the young his constant care was to impress upon their minds that they were not to acquire knowledge for the sake of use, but possession; not for the sake of display, but enjoyment; not for the sake of the world's appreciation, but for their own gratification,—to acquire strength, and symmetry, and grace, and richness and beauty of intellect, and all the "use" would follow; to prepare to act well a part, and the "part" would be found. Said he, "Does the oak of a century's growth send out its broad branches that it may cast a shadow? On the contrary, it grows and spreads through the strength of its inner life, and the tribes and nations are sheltered beneath its grateful covert." Yet this man was condemned to die by his own countrymen—condemned by the Athenians, whom he had sought only to benefit

No wonder the world asks, in painful surprise, "*What* had he done that he must die?" Even Athens did not know, but looking back we answer: he taught virtue when vice reigned; he taught purity when corruption was practiced; he taught morality when degradation existed; he taught honor when treachery abounded; he taught morality where idolatry prevailed; he turned from the gods who, having eyes see not, having ears hear not, and piercing the veil of ignorance and darkness in which the world was enveloped as in a garment, worshiped the true and living Author of the created universe, recognizing Him, untaught, yet failing to convey the Divine impression to duller minds and consciences that were deadened by sin. Glorious was his noble life; glorious was his noble *death;* and when in his last hours his afflicted friends gathered around him, he taught them again the lesson so oft repeated, of duty, of resignation, of superiority to the incidents of existence, of immortality, of a life that no human tribunal can end at will or pleasure. Plato, weeping in heart-broken sorrow for his friend and teacher, cried, "The last of our friend, the best of all men of this time—the wisest and the most just of all men!" The eloquent Henry Millman said of him, "Jesus Christ died like a God, but Socrates died like a philosopher."

PLATO.

NEARLY five centuries Before Christ, lived Plato, styled by the acients, whose love and reverence for him amounted to something akin to worship, "the Divine." His philosophy was wholly speculative, and in his school he is what Shakspeare is in Drama, or Milton in Poetry—not only unapproached, but unapproachable,—and he stands out from the philosophers of that age—of *every* age,—with the clear cut distinctness with which a leafless



THE ASTRONOMICAL CLOCK IN THE CATHEDRAL OF STRASBURG.

tree lies against the horizon, or a black cloud is outlined against the sunset sky. We said his philosophy was speculative, but it combined reality with ideality in a manner that confounds the philosophy of modern teachers. He taught much of truth unconsciously, and like one who prophesies in a trance, he grasped by a process of reasoning unknown to the mass of thinkers the underlying facts of our being. His imagination was one of the strongest, if not *the* strongest faculty of his mind, but it did not run to vagueries, or to wild, fantastic freaks, but rather pictured with the purest tints that which should be, instead of that which is possible to finite powers. Standing as that age did, in spiritual darkness, given over to the most brutal self-indulgence, and to a very riot of sensualism, Plato yet taught a mastery of self that was sublime, and a clearer sense of an Omnipotent Being than even he fully comprehended; and he was far ahead of Socrates, who was his teacher, but not his leader, since the pupil was superior even to his grand old master. Panætius called him the Homer of phillosophers, and declared that he would rather err with Plato than be right with any other.

He thrice visited Sicily, and in that court where vice and folly reigned supreme, the grave wisdom, the untarnished honor, the childlike simplicity and rigid virtue of the old philosopher must have seemed to Dionysius as refreshing as the shade of palm trees to the desert traveler. At the invitation of the younger Dionysius, he was his guest upon the occasion of his third visit to Sicily, and unfortunately offending the elder, was by his order arrested and imprisoned. Released by the kind intercession of Aniceris, of Cyrene, he returned to Athens, retired to private life, re-established his Academy, and could never be induced again to leave it. He died in his 79th year, 348 B. C.

NICOLAS COPERNICUS.

COPERNICUS, who restored the system of astronomy taught by Pythagoras, was born at Thorn, in Prussia. He took the degree of M. D. with a view to practicing medicine, as his father had done before him, but in consequence of attending a course of mathematical lectures, became much interested in astronomy, and gave a large share of his time to the study of the science. Believing in the annual motion of the world, and desirous of proving it, he constructed a large quadrant. His observations and views were written by himself, and explained to a few friends, but so far were they at variance with the accepted science that he felt the hopelessness of trying to introduce them, and dreaded the ridicule that would be lavished upon a system that would be pronounced absurd. He preferred to introduce it gradually, and trusted time to prepare the world to receive one truth after another.

George Rheticus, professor of mathematics, resigned his chair at Wittemberg, to study astronomy with him, and they planned together how best they might present the matter to the world in such a manner as not to shock beyond endurance its religious feelings, for it was very sensitive indeed; and the same theory taught by Galileo one hundred years later, was pronounced rank heresy.

In 1540 Rheticus, whose affection, veneration and admiration of his teacher and friend seem to have been almost boundless, desirous not only to publish the truth, but, so soon as safe to do so, see Copernicus reaping the honors which were due him, published, without the author's name, an account of his discoveries, and these being received favorably, or at least without alarmingly unfavorable symptoms, he published another and fuller account, with his name.

But as in other—as in *most* cases,—he was not to wear the laurels he had earned; and it was more than a century before the seed he sowed bore fruit that ripened in a more genial age than his. When the first printed volume of his book was brought to him the philosopher lay dying. The day and his life were ebbing together. The sun, whose rising and setting he had so often studied, was sinking in the west; and he was not to see its light on the morrow's dawn. His friend came from the publisher with the first printed book, and placed it in his hand; he raised it before him again and again, till the eyes grew dim as the twilight gathered, the twilight of the night and the twilight of death, but a smile lighted his face as evening's first star lit up the west, and he murmured:

> Ye golden lamps of heaven, farewell, with all your feeble light!
> Farewell, thou ever changing moon, pale empress of the night.
> Ye stars are but the shining dust of my divine abode,
> The pavement of those heavenly courts where I shall reign with God.

His death occurred May 22, 1543.

RAPHAEL.

SANTI RAPHAEL was born at Urbino, Italy, April 6th, 1483. His father gave him his first instructions in art, and he afterwards studied with Pietro Perugino. His first engagement was the fresco on Sala del Cambo. In 1505 Raphael removed to Florence, and remained there, with the exception of brief absences. Florence was at that time far superior to Rome in the facilities which it afforded the student to study, not only from the finest masters, but to study the masterpieces of all ages. The cartoons of Michael Angelo and Leonardo da Vinci, then in preparation for the Council Hall, were in themselves superior to any other works in Rome. Raphael was invited to Rome by Julius II., and was already established temporarily there when Michael Angelo paid the city his third visit. The rivalry between the two artists was very beneficial to both. It was under the stimulus of this rivalry that he painted the fresco of the dwelling-rooms of the Vatican, representing the "Dispute on the Sacrament." In the same rooms are the frescoes of "Poetry," "Philosophy," "The School of Athens," and "Jurisprudence.' His finest fresco, both for grandeur of conception and superior execution, is the "Mass of Bolsena," finished, as also was the "Attila," and "St. Peter delivered from Prison," in 1514. Between the years 1512–20 Raphael painted "St. Cecilia," "Madonna de San Sisto," "The Spasimo," and the cartoons at Hampton Court. His last work, the "Transfiguration," is called the best of all his paintings. If his genius had been prophetic, and foreseen that in this last and purest gem his mighty talents must make for themselves a memorial of their greatness, he could not have better accomplished the work, though his "Madonna di San Sisto" is, perhaps, equally celebrated. Raphael had never an equal for the purity, beauty and grandeur of his conceptions. In this he stood alone during his life—in this his works still stand alone, marking

him far above the mass of those who blended colors more harmoniously, or spread them with lighter tones. Raphael died young—just thirty-seven years old—died in the glory of his fame; even before his powers had reached their prime, or the weakening of his strength had given him regret or pain. His death occurred on the anniversary of his birth, April 6, 1520.

MICHELANGELO BUONARROTI.

THIS world-renowned sculptor and painter, better known by the name of Michel Angelo, was born at Castel Caprese, in Tuscany, March 6, 1475. His early studies were passed in the Academy of Lorenzo de Medici. He was much admired by that prince, who was a patron of art. His first great work was executed in 1494, a statue of the "Sleeping Cupid." At Rome he executed his "Pietà," now the pride of St. Peter's Church. At the beginning of the sixteenth century his chisel wrought with dainty and patient labor, the colossal "David." In 1508 he began his career as painter, or rather, the world began to recognize him as such, for it was previous to this, 1500, that he produced his "Cartoon of Pisa." He was commissioned by Julius II. to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, at the same time that Raphael decorated the dwelling-rooms of the Vatican palace. The frescoes were completed in twenty months, and represented the creation of the world—of man—his fall—also the early history of the world, so far as that mightiest of all tragedies—that Divine masterpiece which both heaven and earth conspired to perfect, the Crucifixion and the Resurrection of our Saviour. It is said to be the grandest production, of art—far superior to anything produced even by himself at any other date. His "Last Judgment," though among his latest works, will not compare with it, either in con-

ception or execution. For twenty years he worked on the history of man in the Sistine Chapel. His last work was the Capella Paolina, finished in 1549, for Paul III. In the seventieth year of his age he was appointed architect of St. Peter's. This great man was also a poet, but never attained any great distinction in this way. He was never married, and died at the age of eighty-nine. It is impossible to do him justice in so limited a sketch—impossible to do more then place his name in the list of those of whose mighty genius the world loves to hand down a record from age to age. His name was the last word spoken by Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Raphael thanked God he lived in the day of Michel Angelo.

HIRAM POWERS.

HIRAM POWERS was born in Woodstock, Vermont, on the 28th of July, 1805, and was the eighth of a family of nine children. His father was a farmer, in poor circumstances, with unlimited calls upon an exceedingly limited income. The children were taught to work as soon as they could walk, and the united efforts of all were required to extort from their few barren and stony acres the wherewithal to keep actual want from their door. In an ill-fated day Mr. Powers was persuaded to become security for a friend, and lost his home, and everything he possessed in the world, except the helpless ones who were but a precious burden. A total failure of crops throughout the State added to their misery. They had by some means become possessed of a cow or two, and these, with difficulty kept them alive and supplied them with one of the staples of their daily bill of fare. In after years, Hiram Powers, a man of the world, an artist with a fame second to none, with a position secured beyond question, thus refers to those dark days: "We lived upon milk and

potatoes, both in so small quantities as scarcely to satisfy the keenest cravings of our hunger, until we loathed the sight or taste of them, and almost the name." The oldest son, a man when Hiram was born, had managed to secure an education, removed to the West, and was now editing a paper in Cincinnati, whither the family now removed. Through the assistance of his son, Mr. Powers obtained a small farm near Cincinnati, then a small town, but the country was new, the land low and boggy, and the air poison with malaria. The family were all sick. Mr. Powers died, and they were left in extreme destitution. Hiram, and indeed each one who was old enough, was dependent upon his own exertions to procure him the necessaries of life, and they were scant indeed. At one time the boy was drummer for a village merchant; at another, collector for a clock-maker and organ-builder; in the latter capacity he gave great satisfaction, and was at length taken into the factory to work, at which piece of good luck he was delighted, since it promised clothes and food; "for," said he, "I often went hungry through the streets, creeping close to the walls to hide the holes in my clothes." The only thing which had ever distinguished our hero was an ingenuity at every mechanical contrivance, and this was now brought into play. His employer believed he could make the boy earn his bread at rough work, and he was one day set to file down some brass plates used about the stops of an organ, after which they were to be given to one of the foremen to be finished and polished for use. Supposing, as it was hard work, and he unaccustomed to it, and having, moreover, no very high opinion of his abilities that he would be some time about it, left him to himself. Looking in, after a while, what was his astonishment to find it not only filed, but finished and polished better than any one in the establishment, even the head finisher, had ever done it. He at once gave the works into his charge; he became superintendent, and had a home in his employer's family. One day, in an idle ramble around town, he visited the museum and saw a bust of Washington, the first one he had ever seen; and he says he could never describe his sensations as he looked at it. The quick blood leaped from his heart, and even in his finger tips it tingled and throbbed and burned, and a bewildering familiarity with art haunted him as if at some time, sleeping or waking, dreaming or acting, he had done such

work as this, and a consciousness that he *could* do it came back again and again. From a German who lived in the city, he obtained some hints, and set about the undertaking silently and secretly. His first attempt was with wax—a model of the head of a babe of John P. Foot, Esq., and his success was gratifying indeed. He did not devote any but spare time to "*his* art," as he now began to call it himself, for Hiram Powers is as modest as he is talented, but he made rapid progress.

While he was still very young, a traveling showman brought to Cincinnati a collection of odds and ends of wax figures, which was dignified by the name of an "Exhibition of Natural History." They had become very much injured by transportation; indeed, they were almost ruined by knocking around the world, for they had been great travelers, and seen better days, no doubt. Hearing that Hiram was a genius and an artist, their owner came to him and asked if he could not patch up the dilapidated collection and again make it presentable to decent society. Hiram looked at the helpless mass in despair; and while he looked an original idea, born of the ludicrous forlornness of the group, entered his brain, and he proposed that a new combination be arranged—an odd, ungainly object, that would attract attention by its very repulsive grotesqueness. The thing was done; and when he suggested that it be christened "King of the Cannibal Isles," was astonished to be shown an advertisement already out, in which it was declared to be the embalmed body of a native of some far-off, unexplored, and heretofore unheard of region, obtained with the greatest difficulty and without regard to cost. Hiram smiled grimly, but the thing was a success, and crowds flocked to see it wherever it was exhibited.

At the age of thirty Mr. Powers had won quite a reputation, and Mr. Longworth, being much interested in him, offered to establish him in business. Mr. Powers was deeply grateful, but too proud to accept the offer. Mr. Longworth then proposed to send him to Italy; but this, too, being declined, he begged him to go to Washington and devote himself entirely to art. Mr. Powers thought favorably of this, and his friend provided him with letters of recommendation as well as the necessary means, and he removed to the capital and remained two years. His letters were a passport to the best society, and his talents were a sufficient

introduction when once they were known. He modeled busts of all the leading statesmen of that period; among whom were Andrew Jackson, John Q. Adams, Calhoun, Van Buren, Marshall, Webster and Woodbury. While in Washington he formed the acquaintance of Senator Preston, of South Carolina, who conceived for him so strong a friendship and admiration that he wrote to his brother, General Preston, an immensely wealthy man, and asked as a personal favor to himself that he send the young artist to Italy to complete his studies and perfect himself in his art. General Preston responded by sending Powers (who had until then been ignorant of what his friend had done) a check for a thousand dollars, and an order for the same amount yearly as long as he should remain abroad, and urged him to go to Italy at once. The offer was so frank, so noble and generous, that Mr. Powers accepted it at once and sailed for Europe. Orders came in rapidly upon him, and the sculptor soon had as much work as he could possibly execute. One piece alone established him a reputation higher than that of any other artist of the day, and that was the Greek Slave, an ideal work executed in moments of leisure. His Eve, finished two years prior to this, considered inimitable, and was indeed exquisite, both in conception and execution, but was never so popular as this. Among his best pieces are "America," "California," "Washington," "Calhoun," "Franklin," "Proserpine," "The Fisher Boy," and "Il Penseroso." The freshness and originality of design is only equaled by the finish of his works, and neither by American nor foreign artists has this been surpassed. His originality and truthfulness were the basis of his success, and as marked now as when he was a young man. He has been a resident of Italy thirty-five years, but is an American still, loving his native land with all the fervor of a patriot, though impelled, by motives of economy, to remain abroad. He is now sixty-five years old, fresh, hale and hearty, with a warm and cordial welcome for his countrymen, and ever a helping hand and encouraging words for young artists; and more than one will remember long years hence how much they owe to Hiram Powers.

THOMAS NAST.

THE story of Thomas Nast's artistic career is a little peculiar. His father was a professional musician, and when we first knew Tommy, the old gentleman was playing that extension brass, shove-out-and-pull-back, force-pump sort of old-fashioned horn they used to have in bands (a friend says it is called a trombone), in the orchestra of Wallace's old theater corner of Broome and Broadway, at ten dollars a week. Nast senior wanted Tommy to become a musician, and, to that end, used to thrash him with a leather strap most enthusiastically and faithfully, in order to make him learn the scales on the violin. Thomas, however, had a genius for drawing, and knew it. He used to beg his father to permit him to become an artist, to all of which the truly conscientious old gentleman (now many years dead) would reply with additional doses of strap.

At last young Thomas became acquainted with Mr. Berghaus, now, and for more than a dozen years, one of Frank Leslie's chief artists; and to Berghaus, who was also a German, he confided all his woes. He showed his drawings to Berghaus and to Sol Eyttinge, who is one of our most delicate and fanciful American draughtsmen, and who was at that time with Leslie; and they, seeing there was really something in the boy, then eleven years old, advised him to continue his efforts to convince his father that he could earn more money as an artist than as musician.

Tommy went home that night, and to the German parent, having come at 12 M. (midnight), he thus remarked:

"Father, I must be an artist. If you let me go and learn to draw, in a year or two I can earn twenty dollars a week; and, in a few years after that, I can bring in from fifty to seventy-five dollars every week; if you make me learn music I may slave all my life, and I shall very likely find myself at fifty years old just where you are now, playing for ten dollars a week in somebody's

band, liable to a discharge any minute, and out of an engagement a quarter of the year, even when things are at their best."

Whether it was the argument, or the determination of young Nast to learn to draw in spite of the paternal forbidding, that carried the point, we know not; certain it is, however, that the next day Tommy Nast entered Frank Leslie's employ and was assigned a desk between Berghaus and Eytinge, which two thorough artists and amiable gentlemen gave Nast all the regular instructions he has ever had.

The young artist more than kept his word; in less than a year he could earn, not $20, but twice that, on Leslie's paper alone, beside making as much more on outside work. His father lived to see that his son was right, and to see that son bringing home his hundred dollars in gold every Saturday night, while he was humbly toiling away for the same old hardly earned ten dollars.

Nast's industry and imaginative genius rapidly carried him forward in the profession, and we presume that for the past ten years, there has not been a week when his work, taking his cartoons for illustrated papers, his illustrations for books, and other business, has not been equal to at least $50 a day, and up to three times that sum.

Nast's mother is a thorough German, a most estimable woman, we are told, and excellent mother—but she cannot speak, or could not when we saw her first and last, a dozen words of English.

Several years ago Nast was introduced to an English family, consisting of the father, mother, son, and three daughters. The mother is a fine specimen of the thorough bred English lady, and her daughters are like unto her. The mother is an aunt of James Parton, the biographer—he who has written the lives of Andrew Jackson, Aaron Burr, Horace Greeley, etc., and who is known all over the country as one of the most versatile and accomplished magazinists and men of letters in the land. The eldest daughter, Sallie, of this lady (Mrs. Edwards), Mr. Thomas Nast married some nine years ago. They have had three children, all, I think, now living. So, you see, if the caricaturist dies he leaves abundant material for a new generation.

MASANIELLO.

ONE of the most singular freaks of fortune or of fate was the public career of Tomaso Aniello, who was born in Italy in the year 1622, and was a poor fisherman of Naples—one of the most ignorant of even his ignorant class. Yet he must have possessed some strong traits of character, or he could never have accomplished what he did. Beautiful Italy, by turns the possession of almost every despot in southern Europe, was just then under the mild and beneficent rule of Spain, and the bland and gentle Duke D'Arcos governed it as Viceroy. The wealth of the land was drained to fill Spanish coffers, and the bravest of her stalwart sons did forced duty in the army of the government they detested. Every specie of tyranny and oppression had been imposed upon a people whom to oppress or wrong seemed outrageous, since they were poor and helpless. The "last straw which broke the camel's back" was the levying of a tax upon fruit which forms so large an item in the food of all classes as to make it impossible for them to subsist without it. Masaniello denounced the measure in the market and other public places, and the gathering discontent manifested itself in the mutterings of the populace.

One day as Masaniello was drilling a troop of young men for the approaching festival of our Lady of the Carmel, which consisted of mock combats, and skirmishes, he overheard a quarrel between a countryman and a customer who had bought some fruit of him, as to which of them should pay the tax. Very little fruit was offered now, and scarcely vegetables enough for consumption. The magistrate who was appealed to decided in favor of the purchaser. The people gathered around and the fire so long suppressed burst out, past control. Masaniello sprang to the center of the infuriated mob and shouted "No taxes! No more taxes for Italy." A thousand voices caught the cry as mountain crags

THE MOSQUE OF OMAR, JERUSALEM:
On Mount Moriah where the Temple of Solomon stood.

catch the echoes and send them from peak to peak. Suddenly his whole nature seemed to change; the fisherman of Naples developed and expanded in a few minutes of time into an orator whose words thrilled the hearts of his audience, and leaped like fire from pulse to brain, as he poured out a torrent of burning invectives upon the head of their oppressor, and called, in rude, unstudied eloquence, for them to break every fetter and throw off the yoke that ground them in the dust at the feet of the power whose tyranny they hated. Excited by the inflammable address and maddened by their wrongs, the Neapolitans at once proclaimed Masaniello their chief, and with him at their head, pressed on, increasing at every step, until they numbered thousands. Rudely and hastily armed, they assailed everything that opposed them, tore the viceroy from his palace, and demanded nothing less than the total abolition of all taxes and the withdrawal of Spanish power. Frightened into compliance, and desirous of protecting himself from the mob, he readily promised anything and everything, but barely escaped with his life. The palace was sacked, and the costly and beautiful furniture and works of art were burned on the market square by the order of Masaniello. In six hours from the time when he cried "No more taxes for Italy!" he was Captain General of the Neapolitans, and entered upon the performance of his duties; while Naples, taken by surprise, was forced to yield to a man who was at best but the meanest of her sons, yet exacted such absolute obedience as never was given to the mightiest of her legitimate sovereigns. Habited in costly apparel, invested with the insignia of royalty and of his office, he set about his duties with a system and energy that was astonishing. The town was put in a state of defense; sentinels were stationed to guard against surprise. The army and navy were alike subject to his will, and that will was law. Nobles and cavaliers were compelled to yield up the swords that had so long been the honored and honorable badge of their nobility; and no article of dress was allowed to be worn that could in any way cover or conceal a weapon. An awe, a strange, subdued, hush—a timid, paralyzed helplessness seemed to have taken possession of the people, and they moved, with stealthy cowardly looks and steps.

This brilliant, but arbitrary reign was brought to a sudden close; a close that corresponded well with its meteoric birth and progress. The importance of his position, the weight and multiplicity of care was too great for a mind so undisciplined and so unused to bearing burdens, and it gave way beneath the pressure. He became cruel, jealous and suspicious, and in fits of frenzy perpetrated the most unjustifiable acts. Entering a convent one day, he talked in so wild and incoherent a manner that the priests persuaded him to lie down and calm himself. Suddenly arose the cry of "Masaniello!" and it was discovered that the convent was surrounded with armed men. Masaneillo came at the call, and was shot down as he appeared at the door of his cell. "Ungrateful people!" were his last words. His reign covered but nine days.

ZERAH COLBURN.

ZERAH COLBURN was born at Cabot, Vermont, September 1, 1809; and was considered a dull child until he was six years old; when one day, setting on the floor playing with chips, he was heard repeating and multiplying numbers. His father's attention was attracted, and he questioned him as far as his own limited knowledge of mathematics went. The astonishment of the father was expressed to a neighbor who rode up just then, and soon word of the strange phenomenon spread through the town, and in less than a year to Europe. Some gentlemen of influence and means examined the boy, and finding that up to the moment of the discovery he had had no advantages, proposed to have the matter thoroughly tested. Accordingly Mr. Colburn took his son to Danville, during the session of court, and he was visited by the judge and members of the bar, who satisfied them-

selves of his power of solving, in an instant, the most intricate problems of mathematics. Mr. Colburn then took his boy to Boston, where it was proposed to educate the infant prodigy; but the terms, though very liberal, were not equal to what his father desired; he refused them and traveled with him. A person who saw him at six years of age says of him: "He was like other boys of his age; not at all remarkable in appearance; small, light, quick in his motions, and playful; answering, without a seeming thought, any question put to him." The following is a specimen of the questions and answers given as rapidly as he could speak them: "What is the number of seconds in 2000 years? The answer, 63,072,000,000, was readily and accurately given. Another question was this: Allowing that a clock strikes 156 times in a day, how many times will it strike in 2000 years? The child promptly replied, 113,800,000 times.

"What is the product of 12,225, multiplied by 1,223? Answer: 14,951,175. What is the square of 1,449? Answer: 2,099,601. Suppose I have a corn-field, in which are seven acres, having seventeen rows to each acre, sixty-four hills to each row, eight ears on a hill, and one hundred and fifty kernels on an ear; how many kernels in the corn-field? Answer: 9,139,200."

As his acquaintance with arithmetical terms increased, with no education but that of the questions which were asked him daily, his faculty for calculation increased, and these extraordinary performances were witnessed by thousands daily, and attracted so much attention in scientific circles that he was taken to London. There even royalty amused itself with the wonderful child; and among others who visited him were the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, Lord Ashburton, Sir James Mackintosh, Sir Humphrey Davy, and the Princess Charlotte. The latter, attended by her tutor, the bishop of Salisbury, remained a full hour, and asked a number of questions. Among the rest was this: What is the square of 4001? The answer, 16,008,001, was immediately given. The duke of Cambridge asked the number of seconds in the time elapsed since the commencement of the Christian era, 1813 years, 7 months, 27 days. The answer was correctly given, 57,234,384,000.

An extraordinary interest was excited in London in respect to this remarkable youth, and schemes for giving him an education

suited to his turn of mind were suggested. At a meeting of several distinguished gentlemen, to mature some plan of this sort, various questions were proposed to the child. He multiplied the number eight by itself, and each product by itself, till he had raised it to the sixteenth power, giving, as the almost inconceivable result, 281,474,976,710,656. He was asked the square root of 106,929, and before the number could be written down he answered, 327. He was then requested to name the cube root of 268,336,125, and with equal facility and promptness he replied, 645.

It was now proposed to give him a thorough education at the Royal College, but before the king's sanction came, Napoleon returned from Elba, the Bourbons were swept away, and fled before the emperor like thistle down before the wind; but Napoleon became the patron of the boy, and on the first of May he was placed in the Seminary, under the royal protection. After the battle of Waterloo, his father removed him to London, and he was placed by the Earl of Bristol at Westminster school when he was twelve years old.

His father seems to have been unwise in his management of the boy—selfish and narrow in his views, expecting and desiring nothing but to make money from his gifts, and because enough could not be extorted from his noble patrons to support, not only the boy and himself, but a family of six beside, he withdrew him from the school, where he was making most satisfactory progress in all his studies, and decided that he should go on the stage. For this purpose he was put under the training of Charles Kendall, and made his first appearance in the character of Norval; though his reception was flattering to a beginner, he received no compensation, and his father took him from Mr. Kendall, and traveled hither and thither, through England and Scotland, but met with no success; and after an absence of a few months they returned to London, reduced to absolute beggary, which vocation was plied until their friends wearied of supplying the wants of one who had thrown away so many opportunities of doing well.

His father died in 1824, and Zerah, in compliance with his death-bed request, returned to his mother, whom he had not seen for twelve years. During her husband's long absence, with a family of eight children, with but little property, she had, with the labor of her own hands, supported them and made a decent living.

Zerah was now converted; having for some time been impressed with religious views, he united with the Methodist Church, and became a preacher, and afterward professor of the Greek, Latin, French and Spanish languages in the Vermont University at Norwich, at which place he died March 24, in the thirty-eighth year of his age.

DANIEL BOONE.

"A MIGHTY hunter, even as Nimrod," was Daniel Boone; a skillful and cunning frontiersman, a pioneer of the old school From his very childhood he had a taste or fondness for a gun which amounted almost to a passion, and he early became, by practice, a proficient in the use of it. When Mr. Boone was eighteen or nineteen years old his father removed from Pennsylvania to North Carolina, then an entirely new country, where game was very abundant, and Daniel confined himself entirely to hunting as a profession or business. It was a habit or custom to hunt deer by torchlight. The animal, attracted by the light, would stop to look at it, and its eyes gleaming through the darkness made an excellent mark for the hunter. On one occasion he was out at night with a friend "*fire hunting*," as they termed it, when suddenly, like stars through a rift in some wild, dark cloud, there shone out of the darkness a pair of the brightest eyes. Boone raised his gun to his shoulder, and was about to fire, when the deer bounded away and was lost in the forest. Young Boone followed rapidly, and after an exciting chase he came out at the house of a farmer, and to his utter amazement found the game he had pursued so hotly was a beautiful girl of sixteen, "a daughter of the house." The prettiest romance in the world has been woven by his biographer, and were it not too long we would give it to you in his own lan-

guage, but as we must condense our narrative, we have not space. But the self-evident fact remains, that young Boone fell desperately in love, then, and there with the flaxen haired girl who had so narrowly escaped being shot for a fawn, and that she became his wife. Boone removed with his wife to the head waters of the Yadkin, where he remained several years. But as the country became settled his wild, untamed spirit grew restless in his close quarters, and he again moved to the wilds of Kentucky, and with some friends, crossed the Alleghanies and stood at last on the summit of the Cumberland Ridge, their faces turned to the setting sun. The unbroken forest lay stretched out before him, mile after mile of country that was never pressed by the foot of a white man, and through whose still glens the tramp of coming millions had not yet even echoed. Trees of every germ and description towered there, untouched by the woodman's axe, and not even blazed by the hatchet of hunter or pioneer. Rivers flashed here and there in the sunlight, and clear lakes lay in the valleys like dimples in the cheek of beauty. No richer or more fertile country lies on the face of the earth than the valley of the Mississippi, that then lay before them. Game of every kind was very abundant, and as they proceeded westward they met large herds of buffalo. They spent the summer in those lovely wilds, and in the winter divided for the purpose of making more extended observations, and to explore more of this, then, wildnerness. One day, when pursuing their way quietly, a band of Indians suddenly sprang from an ambush, with a frightful whoop and yell, and took them prisoners. They made their escape, however, the next night and returned to their old quarters, where they failed then to meet with the other members of their party, but met by a chance that seemed almost a miracle, a brother of Boone, who with a single companion had found his way through the trackless forest. His friend was, soon after, shot by an Indian, while the companion of Daniel went out and returned no more; though they sought him sorrowing, only the torn and bloody garments were found giving evidence, as did "the coat of many colors," that wild beasts had devoured him. The two brothers were now the only white men west of the mountains, and they decided to spend the winter there. It passed pleasantly and safely by, hunting by day, telling tales and singing songs by

their blazing cabin-fires. In the spring their ammunition was nearly exhausted, and it was decided that the elder brother should return to civilized life and lay in such supplies as were needed. It was seven hundred miles to the nearest white settlement, and the trip would necessarily consume some time. He started the first of May, and returned the first of August, and all those long months Daniel was alone in the forest—the wild, dark forest, swarming with savage men. At last the long months passed away, and the brother returned with horses and the needful supplies, and with tidings of his family, from whom he was separated. It had now become a settled conclusion with the brothers, that no better place could be found for a home than the country where they then were, and they set about selecting a site for the houses they would build before they brought to the west their wives and children. In September he went to North Carolina, and started with his own and brother's families, together with five others, and they were also joined by forty men, armed and equipped, to act as guards. Before they reached their old camping ground they were attacked by Indians, six of the party killed, and all their cattle killed or driven away. They held a council, and concluded under the circumstances, that it would be wise not to proceed on their journey, but on account of their helpless wives and children to remain near white settlements; and they returned as far as Clinch river, where they made a temporary settlement.

In 1773 Boone and several others built a fort, and as soon as it was completed he removed his family to it. Within two years he was twice attacked by the red men, and repulsed them, but was then taken by them while out hunting and carried to Detroit, from whence he escaped and returned to the fort. At another time they were surrounded by four or five hundred Frenchmen and Indians, but with fifty men he repulsed them, and they withdrew after great loss.

In 1792 Kentucky was admitted to the Union as a State, and his right to the land he claimed being contested, he lost his home through the trickery of the law that should have defended him It is said that the indignation of the old hunter knew no bounds at this bit of legal injustice, and that he was so disgusted with civilized life that he withdrew to Louisiana, where he obtained a

grant of two thousand acres of land from the Spanish Government, to whom it then belonged, and removed there with his family. He was already an old man, his hair was gray, but the sturdy spirit of the pioneer could not brook the infringement of civilization upon his rights. Here in the wilds of what is now Missouri, he spent the remainder of his days in the familiar and dearly beloved pursuit of hunting and trapping, and died at what is now Charette, in 1822.

GROTIUS.

HUGO GROTIUS was born in Delft, Holland, April 10th, 1583. In youth he was provided with the best of masters, and was early distinguished for his talents and industry. At eight years of age he composed with ease and elegance; some of his Latin poems written at that time are quite remarkable. At fourteen he maintained public theses in mathematics, law and philosophy with perfect success. His reputation was established, and mature and profound scholars declared him the prodigy of the age. In 1598 he accompanied Barnevelt, ambassador extraordinary of the Dutch Republic, in a journey to France, and there, at the gay court of Henry IV., received the most flattering attention, and took the degree of doctor of laws. He returned to Delft, and commenced to practice law, and when only seventeen years old, was chosen national histographer, in preference to all other candidates.

Grotius now rose rapidly in rank as a philosopher, and published several works of so great merit as to secure him a fine reputation as an author. He also held several offices of trust, in which capacity he was sent to England to negotiate with the ministers, and there formed the acquaintance of James II. The religious difficulties which had darkened the sky of Holland with

portentous clouds, now thickened and deepened, and threatened to deluge the land with blood. In 1618 a synod met at Dort to consider what was best to be done. They condemned the Arminian faith in the most unqualified manner and banished all who upheld it. Barnevelt, Grotius and Hoogurbetz, advocated the doctrine, and the first was sentenced to death, the two latter to imprisonment for life. In the dreary and desolate dungeon at Louvestien, Grotius was permitted to pursue his literary studies, and here, after the most urgent entreaties, his young and beautiful wife was admitted occasionally, and thus, the rigors of confinement mitigated by books, papers and her presence, several years dragged by. His wife was allowed to come and go at will, to furnish him fresh linen, clothing, books, and many comforts not included in prison fare. She was accustomed to bring these things in a chest, and remove them in the same way, which was always carried in and out by two soldiers, and examined by the jailor, who at first was exceedingly careful; but finding nothing suspicious therein, or in the gentle and pretty little woman who had always a smile and a pleasant word for him, his vigilance relaxed, and she passed unquestioned and unnoticed. One day she sent a chest of drawers, about three feet in height and the same in length, in which she laughingly assured the guardian of the institution she intended to carry away all the books, old clothes, and trash from her husband's apartment, to make room for new. The jailor nodded kindly to her proposal, looked in and through the door left slightly ajar, with a pleasant word for the bright-eyed little woman who had half bewitched him, then went to another part of the building. In a short time the chest was brought out, put in a cart and driven to Gorcum, taken to a small house, and when the door was closed, the lid was opened, and Grotius stepped out. In a cunning disguise he fled to Antwerp, and wrote to the State's General of Holland, declaring his innocence of any wrong, and from there he went to Paris, and from the king received a handsome pension. After the death of Prince Maurice, his estates were returned to him, together with all other of his confiscated property, and he returned to Holland, but there was a spirit of bitterness against him, and he left his home forever, and took up his residence at Hamburg. Though he received the most flattering testimonials of regard from several nations, he chose

Sweden for his final home, and was sent as the queen's ambassador to France. Honors were showered upon him, wealth flowed into his coffers, and the nations seemed to vie with each other in the attentions paid him. Wearying at length of the bustle and fatigues of public life, he begged to be recalled, and to be allowed to retire to private life and rest. His petition was granted; but on his way to Lubec, he was exposed to a severe storm, a fever was contracted which ended his life August 28th. He left many works, among them the "Law of Peace and War," and the "Truth of the Christian Religion," which is still considered one of the best works on the subject ever written.

BRANT.

JOSEPH BRANT—or Thayendanegea, as he delighted to write himself—was born in the year 1742—a full-blooded Mohawk of the Wolf tribe. Being the son of a chieftain, he commenced his career as a warrior at an early age, and when a lad of thirteen was present with his elder brothers at the memorable battle of Lake George, when Baron Dieskau fell mortally wounded.

Some years after this, when Sir William Johnson, having lost his first wife, took Brant's sister—Miss Molly—under his protection, as is mentioned in the interesting memoir of Mrs. Grant, of Laggan, the baron, in patronizing the other members of the family, sent Joseph to the missionary school of Dr. Wheelock, in Connecticut; upon returning from which, at the expiration of two or three years, Sir William assigned him a share of his duties in the extensive Indian agency which he conducted. We find Brant next in the field in the campaign of the English, with Pontiac, the celebrated Tawaw or Ottawa chief of Michigan, who at one time so nearly annihilated the British power in the northwest. In this war—according to the narrative of President Wheelock, published in 1767—"he behaved so like the Christian and the soldier as to give him great esteem." In the former character, we find him soon after the close of this campaign aiding an Episcopal clergyman in translating the Book of Common Prayer in the Mohawk language, and regularly received the communion in the church.

Upon the death of Sir William Johnson, who was succeeded in his title and estate by his son John—the celebrated British partisan of the revolution—and in his superintendency of the Indian department by his son-in-law, Col. Guy Johnson, Brant was advanced to the important post of secretary of the superintendent—thus embodying in his own person the influence of an Indian chief, and the actual conduct of the affairs of the agency of the confederate Six Nations and their allies.

JOSEPH BRANT

The talents of Brant in this capacity seem to have been of great use to his principal, in his difficult task of keeping the Indians loyal to the British Crown when the revolution broke out a few years afterward. Upon the first popular commotion, Guy Johnson, who at an early day embroiled himself with his neighbors, by intruding with a band of armed retainers into an assemblage of the people, retired with his secretary from his seat of Guy Park, on the Mohawk, to Oswego, where he convened the grand council of the Six Nations, and commenced that tampering with their neutrality which ultimately led all of the Cantons, except the Oneidas, to take up arms for the Crown. From hence the superintendent crossed to Canada, with Brant and other leading chieftains, whose loyalty was further confirmed by an interview with Sir Guy Carleton, afterward Lord Dorchester.

Sir John Johnson had, in the meantime, fortified the baronial hall at Johnstown with swivels, and raised a band among his tenantry, consisting chiefly of Catholic Scotch Highlanders, which force, amounting to some five hundred armed retainers, enabled him to set the country people at defiance, and insult the magistrates of the county with impunity. To break up this nest of the disaffected, General Schuyler was detached by the Continental Congress with a force of three thousand militia. The Indians along the Mohawk seemed disposed to interfere with the summary ousting of their friends, but Col. Guy Johnson, with Brant and their other principal leaders, being absent in Canada, they did not venture upon doing more than remonstrate with General Schuyler, who, after persuading them that his objects were entirely "peaceable," advanced upon Johnstown, and called upon the baronet to break up his band of retainers, surrender his arms, and give eight hostages for the good behavior of the tenantry. Among the terms of surrender the following reads very quaintly at this day:—

"Secondly. General Schuyler, out of personal respect for Sir John, and from a regard to his rank, consents that Sir John shall retain for his own use a complete set of armor, and as much powder as may be sufficient for domestic purposes."

The parley lasted for several days, Johnson evidently wishing to gain time, but was at last brought to a summary conclusion by Schuyler's sending Colonel Duer and two other gentlemen with his ultimatum, and enclosing a passport for Lady Johnson, desir-

ing her instantly to leave the hall. In the last copy of terms, we find this reply to one of Johnson's stipulations:

"General Schuyler never refused a gentleman his side arms."

The parley commenced on the sixteenth of the month, and on the twentieth Gen. Schuyler paraded his troops, and the Highlanders, having marched out and grounded their arms, "were dismissed, with an exhortation to remain peaceable, and with an assurance of protection if they did so."

Sir John, however, did not observe the compact of neutrality nor the obligations of his parole. He soon after fled to Canada under the escort of a party of Mohawks, was immediately commissioned a colonel in the British service, and from the loyalists of Tyron county raised a command of two battalions, being that desperate band of tories afterward so well known in the revolutionary warfare of New York, as "Johnson's Greens," whose colors were adopted by Brant, and with whom he fought side by side upon the bloody field of Oriskany.

Brant, in the meantime, had sailed for England in company with Captain Tice, a British officer, where we find him most oddly placed as the intimate friend of James Boswell and the Earl of Warwick. He sat for his portrait to Romney for the earl, and "Bozzy" appears to have subsequently corresponded with him. His loyalty being strengthened by an interview with George the Third, at which he presented himself in full Indian costume, Brant reëmbarked again for America, where he was privately landed somewhere in the neighborhood of New York, whence he performed a very hazardous journey to Canada, having, of course, to steal his way through a hostile population until he could hide himself in the forests beyond Albany. "He had taken the precaution, however, in England, to provide evidence of the identity of his body in case of disaster, or of his fall in any of the battles he anticipated, by procuring a gold finger-ring with his name engraved thereon at full length."

Within a few weeks after retouching his native shores, Brant, now a regular commissioned captain in the British service, had an opportunity of taking up the hatchet in earnest. He led a force of six hundred Indians in the affair of the Cedars, and in this, his first field against the patriot forces, exhibited that humanity after victory which repeatedly distinguished him afterward. The late

Colonel M'Kinstry, of Livingston's Manor, whose intimacy continued with the chief until the decease of the latter, was rescued by him from torture and death, when wounded and a prisoner in the hands of the Indians.

PHILIP.

METACOM was the hereditary chief of the Narragansets, who owned the land around the bay which bears their name, and his home was Mount Hope,—now Bristol. On account of his unbounded ambition and his beauty and imperious disposition, he was called King Philip by the English, and he was more generally known by this than by his own name. The tribe he ruled was peculiarly intelligent, increased in numbers and in strength, and studied the arts of peace and war, and Philip made himself intimately acquainted with the strength, policy and designs of the colonists.

In 1671 Philip was discovered to be making preparations for war. His tribe was already well provided with fire arms obtained from the British. The English charged him with wrong designs, which he denied, and it was only when proof of the discovery of his plot to murder the inhabitants and burn the town was given to him, that he admitted it, and new treaties were drawn up and signed by him. For a time all was peaceful again, but in 1674 the old fire burst out in terrible fury. The first act was the murder of John Sassamon, an Indian who had been converted to the Christian faith. Obtaining knowledge of Philip's plot, he warned the Governor of Plymouth, and though he enjoined secresy upon the English, knowing well that his life would pay the penalty of his friendly act, it was discovered and he vilely murdered. Philip was charged with his murder, and denied it, but the body was found, the murderer arrested, tried, and executed. Philip de-

clared they had no right to interfere between him and an Indian, and the feeling of bitterness grew more rank. His rage knew no bounds when he was assured that the Governor had a right to arrange matters of this kind, and in future would do so. The Mass. militia was called out, and Philip, with a large force, fled to the swamps, burning and murdering everything in his way, and issuing out to rob and pillage the country at will. The English surrounded the swamps, and again drove them to the country. Having ravaged the western part of Massachusetts, Philip made claim of an island in the center of an immense swamp, and here erected the strongest fortification ever built by a savage. Here he was attacked, but for some cause the Indians were struck with panic, and though the battle raged three hours, they could not he controlled or make a concerted action. The English passed from wigwam to wigwam, and the slaughter was terrible—more fiendish than human, and the bodies of the Indians, slain without resistance, lay in such piles as to impede progress. Philip escaped, fled to Albany, and with only a handful of men—often alone—was hunted from place to place. At Taunton river he narrowly escaped, and only by shaving off his hair and disguising himself did he save his life. His wife and son were captured, and his cup of misfortune seemed to overflow. "I am ready to die," he exclaimed in his anguish; but being advised by one who had been his firm friend in all his misfortune, and who had saved his life more than once at the risk of his own, to surrender himself to the English, he struck him down dead. This rash and cruel act cost Philip his life. With him perished five of his most trusty followers, and with them, the great and noble tribe of the Narragansets was nearly extinct. The remnant of the tribe had neither power, influence, or spirit. Philip's son was sent to the Bermudas and sold for a slave, and his wife died of a broken heart. King Philip's war cost the colonists more than half a million of dollars and nearly a thousand men. The enmity of Philip was not personal, but national. It was for his people, not himself, he fought; for them he was ambitious; for them he resented the encroachments of the white men. He was generally kind to those whom the fortunes of war threw into his power, especially women and children, and with all his rude faults, there was something noble in his savage nature.

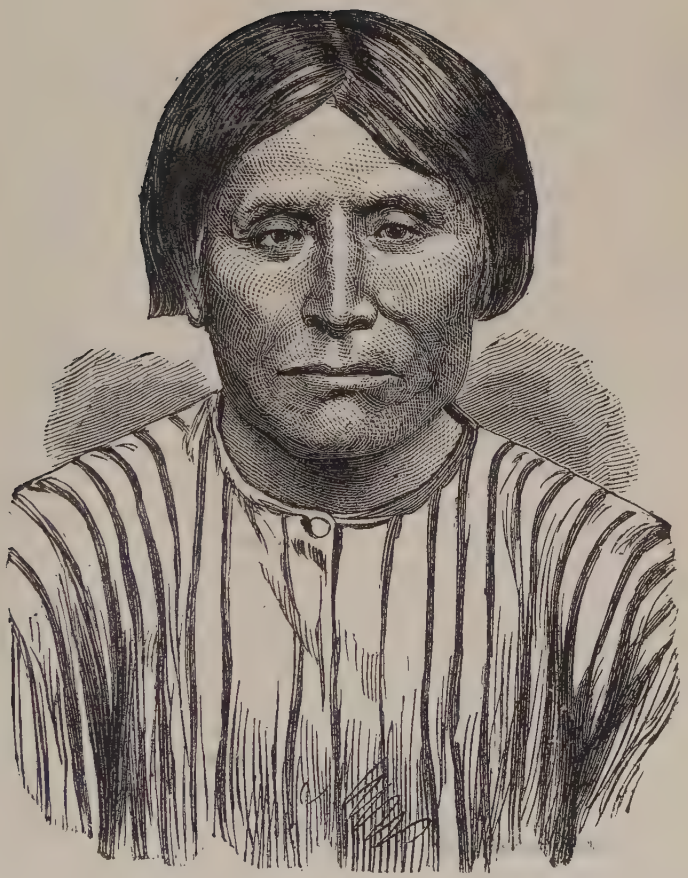
TECUMSEH.

TECUMSEH, one of the most renowned warriors of the Shawanese tribe, was born on the Scioto, at or near the site of Chillicothe, Ohio. He was one of three sons delivered at one birth, his second brother being Ellskwatawa, the Prophet. Of the third, nothing is known. His brother was the reverse of himself in everything—stupid, sensual and intemperate. The most extravagant tales were told of his supernatural powers, and as a bold, unprincipled and unscrupulous impostor, he was at least equal to any who have succeeded him.

In 1809 a treaty was entered into and concluded between the Delawares, Miamis and Potawatomies, the United States, through Gen. Harrison, their commissioner, ceding a tract of land sixty miles wide along the Wabash river. This was done without the knowledge or consent of Tecumseh, or the Prophet. He had been absent at the time, but on his return, raved over the transaction and threatened to kill the chiefs concerned in the negotiation, who had singed the treaty; and declared that Americans should never inhabit it. Gen. Harrison, on being informed of this, sent for him to come and prove if he had any claims on the property; if so, he should receive his share of the pay. Tecumseh met him at Vincennes, and failing to establish any right to the land, he flew into a passion, and giving the signal, his warriors grasped their hatchets and sprang forward. Harrison drew his sword as he leaped from his seat, maintained a calm demeanor and ordered his men to come forward as coolly as if no danger threatened. Toma hawks were raised, swords unsheathed, but the stern, firm face of the wily old General intimidated the savages far more than the glitter of their swords. He ordered Tecumseh and his men to leave the camp and return home, which they did, with "curses more deep than loud," and with threats of vengeance.

General Harrison having demanded of Tecumseh the restoration of some horses stolen by his men, was informed that the chief and his brother would pay the general a visit, and received permission on condition that he brought but thirty of his followers with him. This visit resulted in exhibitions of strategy and treachery, and with no advantage to the Indians.

In September, 1811, Harrison, at the head of a thousand men, marched up the Wabash, halted within the United States limits, met the Indians in fierce battle and routed them. This was one of the most hotly contested of any of the Indian battles, and Tippecanoe will long be remembered as the scene of it. Tecumseh was unable after this to raise any considerable force. Little was seen or heard of him, however, until the disastrous campaign of General Hull laid the northern border open to the savage swarms, who were not slow to avail themselves of the opportunity. Tecumseh received from the British the commission of brigadier general, and with a strong body of followers joined General Proctor, who had an immense force, and occupied Malden, where he first proposed to await the attack of Harrison, who was marching forward; but the victory of the victories was that of the Americans on Lake Erie, which changed his plans, and he burned the town and retreated to the interior. Tecumseh, who was brave and fearless, despised the cowardice of his commander and harrangued and urged in vain to prevent the unnecessary and shameful retreat. Harrison crossed the river, and rapidly pursuing, brought them to a stand at the Moravian town on the Thames. The Indians fought with the coolness of veterans, and the desperation of devils, reserving their fire until they were so near the Americans that a volley would lay down the foremost rank as a scythe cuts down a swath of hay. Tecumseh led his men, and where the fight was fiercest and wildest, his voice animated them to greater efforts. Suddenly the cheer which was rising from his lips, was cut short; his tall form reeled for a moment to and fro as if he were drunken with the wine red carnage, and then he sank to rise no more. Tecumseh was dead; with the fall of their leader the courage of his men gave way, and they turned and fled. He was the life and soul of the Indian tribes, and at his death most of them delivered up their prisoners, made treaties of peace, and gave up forever the idea of an Indian confederacy.



CAPT. JACK, CHIEF OF THE MODOC INDIANS.

BLACK HAWK.

THE utter explosion of a bubble does not erase from our mind the tints of more than rainbow brightness that colored it. Something of the romance which it has been customary to fling around the Red Men of the forest still lingers, though years of stern experience has robbed the halo of some of its brightness. There are a few of the old Indian warriors who were the true friends of the infant colonies in their long struggle for a foothold on the Western Continent, and who shared with them their scanty supply of corn, sheltered them in their wigwams, and warned them of coming danger when hostile tribes were upon the war-path thirsting for vengeance; and later still, when the British haunted them, more merciless than savage foemen, they were the trusty allies of the Federalists. We love to speak of them as friends of our country's early years. Yet, with a few exceptions, the Indian tribes were the scourge of the continent, and the terror of the early settlers.

One of the principal leaders of the savage tribes was Black Hawk, chief of the united tribes of Sacs and Foxes, who claimed and occupied the territory between the Illinois and Mississippi rivers. The spot on which the Sac village was built, at the junction of the Mississippi and Rock rivers, had been their headquarters for more than a hundred and fifty years. Here their treasures had been gathered; here their young men had grown into veteran braves; here their little ones were born, and their dead buried. All this was included in the territory which Keokuk's treaty gave the whites, and the hearts of the red men were sore within them at the prospect of giving it into the hands of aliens. Black Hawk easily convinced Keokuk that he had been overreached, and that the cession was both illegal and impolitic, and he readily promised to get the village restored to its original and rightful owners.

With this understanding the Indians remained in their old homes until fall, when, as usual they went for their winter

hunt, and the whites, taking advantage of their absence, took immediate and full possession, and upon their return, not being willing to give up their position, offered to compromise matters, thinking all could live happily together. The Indians kindly consented, but every imposition was heaped upon them, until their pride and anger were roused, and when they resented they were ordered to quit the village and go out and make new homes. They refused. The State militia, seven hundred strong, was ordered out by Gov. Reynolds, to remove the Indians, dead or alive. Part of them withdrew, sadly and sullenly, others still refused. A council was called, and Black Hawk came to meet the Governor. He was firm in his declaration not to give up one inch of his ground — that he was not afraid of the whites — and was ready to fight, but as soon as the militia arrived, the Indians withdrew. Under Black Hawk they fought, were defeated, taken prisoners and were afterwards pardoned, and in his farewell address to Col. Eustace, Black Hawk said:

"Brother, I have come, on my own part and in behalf of my companions, to bid you farewell. Our great father has at length been pleased to permit us to return to our hunting-grounds. We have buried the tomahawk, and the sound of the rifle will hereafter only bring death to the deer and the buffalo. Brother, you have treated the red men very kindly. Your squaws have made them presents, and you have given them plenty to eat and drink. The memory of your friendship will remain till the Great Spirit says it is time for Black Hawk to sing his death song. Brother, your houses are as numerous as the leaves upon the trees; and your young warriors are like the sands upon the shore of the big lake which rolls before us. The red man has but few houses and few warriors, but the red man has a heart which throbs as warmly as the heart of his white brother. The Great Spirit has given us our hunting-grounds, and the skin of the deer, which we kill there, is his favorite, for its color is white, and this is the emblem of peace. This hunting-dress and these feathers of the eagle are white. Accept these my brother. I have given one like this to the White Otter. Accept it as a memorial of Black Hawk. When he is far away, this will serve to remind you of him. May the Great Spirit bless you and your children. Farewell."

STEPHEN GIRARD.

STEPHEN GIRARD was a native of Bordeaux, and was born in the year 1750. His parents were poor, and he received no other education than is implied in the fact that when he was a child he was taught to read and write. Although nearly his entire manhood was spent in his adopted city he never acquired a sufficient knowledge of the English language to speak it correctly; but the native vigor of his mind supplied in large measure such deficiencies as in most other men would have been insuperable barriers to success. He often referred to the ridicule from which he suffered in his early youth, because of the distorted features of his face, produced by a defective eye.

At the age of ten or twelve years he shipped as a cabin boy on a small vessel bound to the West Indies, and afterwards sailed from New York in the same humble capacity. At this time he won the good-will of the master of the vessel by his fidelity and industry, who not long after gave him the command of a small craft, in which Girard made several voyages to New Orleans and other ports. His great frugality and success in speculation enabled him soon to become part owner of the vessel, in which he continued to sail as master.

In 1769 Girard, then but nineteen years of age, established himself in Philadelphia, and in the course of the next year he married Polly Lum, the pretty daughter of a caulker, then in her seventeenth year, and a servant girl in his neighborhood. His marriage did not prove a happy one, because of the asperity of his temper; and the final result was a divorce from his wife, who afterwards became insane, and for the last twenty-five years of her life she was an inmate (1790 to 1815) of a lunatic asylum. She bore him but one child, who died in infancy.

Girard's commercial operations were interrupted by the war of the Revolution, so that for several years he was occupied as a grocer and dealer in liquors; he, however, again entered the West India trade, and was soon recognized as a rich man.

The first impressions upon the spectator made by Stephen Girard were decidedly unfavorable; his person was altogether quite forbidding. His vulgar exterior, his cold, abstracted, and taciturn

habits did not fail to excite in the mind of the casual observer a feeling approaching to contempt. He was short and square built, and resembled an old sailor. His wall-eye, mean garb, and general presence contrasted so strikingly with his large fortune, that one could scarcely fail to feel disgusted at his appearance and bearing. He was partially deaf in one ear, and his conversation was sadly disfigured by his broken French dialect. He talked but little, except on business, and then said no more than was necessary to make himself understood. His volubility, however, when excited by anger, was without a parellel, especially when among his workmen and dependants, and his language was not either refined or courteous. But to compensate for these ebullitions of temper towards his inferiors, he had the art of conciliating them by the most fascinating displays of occasional good nature, which impressed them favorably, and led to great readiness on their part to serve him devotedly.

In his habits of attention to business, Mr. Girard was precise and regular; perhaps more so at his counting-room than at his bank. On discount days at the latter, he observed regular hours. During the spring and summer months he was accustomed to spend an hour or two each morning in a garden attached to his bank, where he employed himself in nursing his fig-trees, dressing his shrubs, and pruning his vines.

At the venerable age of eighty-one he died, and was buried without religious ceremonies in a Roman Catholic cemetery. His will devised an immense estate,—perhaps greater than was ever before given,—for purposes wholly beneficent and charitable, which led to prolonged litigation. In these legal contests Daniel Webster and other eminent counsel were conspicuous.

Mr. Girard's estate was valued at about twelve millions of dollars, and was all devoted to educating destitute children, and the relief of the poor and distressed. In his will Mr. Girard gave particular directions for constructing Girard College, as to form, size, and materials. The foundations of the main edifice were laid in the summer of 1833, but the structure was not completed and opened until the beginning of 1848. The principal building is said to be the finest modern specimen of Grecian architecture. The form is that of a Corinthian temple, surrounded by a portico, having thirty-four columns, each six feet in diameter and fifty-five

high, resting on a basis of eleven white marble steps. The building is ninety-seven feet high, one hundred and eleven feet wide, and one hundred and sixty-nine feet long. The walls are of white marble, and the stairways and roof, also. The entrances are on the north and south fronts, each having doorways thirty-two feet high and sixteen feet wide. There are twenty-four windows on each of the east and west sides. Mr. Girard's remains were buried beneath the centre of the lower vestibule and are covered by a marble statue. Besides this main edifice there are five other buildings within the inclosure—a labratory, a wash-house, bakery, etc. The cost of erecting the whole was but little less than $2,000,000. Provision was made by the will for supporting as many poor orphans as the premises could be made to accommodate; *first*, those of Philadelphia; *secondly*, those of Pennsylvania; *thirdly*, those of the city of New York; and, *fourthly*, of New Orleans. These poor orphans to be taught "the various branches of a sound education," etc., etc., and "the French and Spanish languages," the Latin not being forbidden, but not recommended. Also such other learning and science to be taught as the capacities of the several scholars should merit or warrant. Principles of morality are to be inculcated, but, in the terms of the founder's will (showing his singular and eccentric character), "no ecclesiastic missionary or minister, of any sect whatever, shall ever hold or exercise any station or duty whatever in said college; nor shall any such person ever be admitted within the premises appropriated to the purposes of said college." Orphans are admitted between the ages of six and ten years, and are fed, clothed, and educated, and when between fourteen and eighteen years are bound out to learn some useful occupation, often to agriculturists, mechanics, etc. As many are admitted to the institution as the endowment will support.

It is to be remarked that the trustees of Girard College early decided to introduce the Bible for the use of the scholars, as not being inconsistent with the will of the founder; and as a commentary upon the course of human events, it may be stated that the present President of that noble institution is likewise President of the American Bible Society, and an LL. D. of eminent attainments and the highest religious character, who fills his position. Mr. Girard died in 1831.

MAZZINI.

JOSEPH MAZZINI was born in Genoa, in 1809. His patriotism was marked in boyhood. He died at Pisa in the early part of 1872, quietly in his bed, and on Italian soil; and it was given to him to hear before he died that the King of Italy had proclaimed the work of Italian independence and unity completed, from the steps of the Capitol at Rome. The most eager, restless spirit in Europe is quiet; the most intense and lofty idealist of our times has passed into the world where "things not seen" may yield to him a satisfaction which he failed to find in any of the enterprises and achievements of life. His health had long been broken; the ardent, enthusiastic spirit has worn out at last the frame which he had never spared in the service of his country or of mankind, and which nothing but an indomitable will has kept alive so long. As student, as conspirator, as political chief of a great party, as Republican ruler of Rome, his life had been one of intense, restless activity. No living man, probably, was so ubiquitous, had so many threads of policy in his head, or so many schemes of which he alone held the key. He was trusted with blind confidence by the daring and enthusiastic youth of the party of progress in Italy, in France, and in a measure in England; and he wielded something like the power of a dictator in the revolutionary propagandas of which he was the acknowledged head. No man in Europe was so hated and haunted by established authorities; no man had so many police agents on his track. And yet no man moved about more freely wherever it pleased him, or escaped so constantly the most carefully arranged toils. He bore not a charmed life, but a charmed person. Years ago it was one of the wonders of the time how Mazzini, proscribed by every government in Europe except England, with a price set upon his head, and a host of police agents familiar with his person or his track, could travel through

Europe on a revolutionary campaign, stir up rebellion in half-a-dozen southern kingdoms or dukedoms, and find himself safe back in England when his enterprises, as always befell, had failed. The truth is, he had something of the power of old Caius Marius, of mastering and constraining men. A singular personal fascination was characteristic of him; and he had devoted adherents by troops in the armies and in the courts of his most bitter foes.

Mazzini, in the first instance, won fame and influence by his fine literary genius. His style was a model of purity and grace, and his criticism was always masterly. He was an accomplished scholar, not in the literature of his own country only, but in the literature of his almost adopted country, for England was his second home. Some of the best criticism which has appeared of late years in our leading periodicals was from his pen. He was a thorough English scholar, and, like Kossuth, handled our language with an ease and mastery which only the very ablest of our native writers attain. But literature, after all, was but the by-play of his life. His great work absorbed him wholly. A fine scholar and critic was spoiled, some may say, to make a bad conspirator. But it was just the qualities which made his criticism so masterly—which made him primarily an Italian patriot, and sustained the faith which quickened faith in others, and made so many joyful martyrs to a noble cause. He was a true lover of mankind—perhaps in the highest sense of the word the pure philanthropist. He shared the modest proceeds of his literary labors with Italian organ boys, while his heart was always open to appeals of human need. He had a profound faith in the possibility, and the near possibility, of a much higher and happier condition for the toiling and suffering mass of mankind than economists dream of. He believed in "God and the people." It was his chosen watchword. He had no sympathy with the aspirations of an atheistic communism. He believed firmly in God, and he never ceased to bear witness that the relations of men were rooted in their relation to God; and that duty, the duty which has Divine sanction, alone could supply the inspiration to the noble and lofty public and private virtue, which to him found a miserable substitute in the frippery, the profligacy, and the extravagance of courts. In these days, in which the revolutionist affects

H. M. STANLEY.

the atheist, let it not be forgotten that Mazzini held fast his faith in God, as well as in the people, to the last.

His brief rule in Rome was the one gleam of sunlight on a sad broken life. In Rome he showed what large statesmanly power was latent in him, if it could but have found a fair theater for its exercise. We have heard those who were in Rome at the time say that life in Rome was never so sweet and wholesome as during the months of his rule. Struck down by the arms of the French Republic he returned to his sad exile. But his instinctive dread of French vanity and ambition was sharpened by the experience; and it is a sign of his clear discernment, that in 1859, when France was all-popular in Italy, he warned his countrymen that France was seeking her own, and would leave Italy when her own ends were gained to shift for herself. He was a pure Republican of the old classical type. He never could fairly reconcile himself to the regeneration of Italy under the scepter of a king. But still his heart must have swelled within him almost to bursting when he heard the echo of the shouts which acclaimed Victor Emmanuel on the Roman Capitol. From that moment we can well believe he set himself to die. Mazzini's work was done.

GEORGE PEABODY.

MAGNIFICENT charities are not always a proof of true benevolence, and princely fortunes may be bestowed without in any great degree benefiting the world, but when a man starts from the lowest ranks in life without assistance, amasses a fortune by his industry and attention to business, and, never hoarding, bestows liberally upon all who need—not only upon the beggar at the door, but famished nations are fed by his bounty, —when his quick sympathies and generous heart respond to every call of woe and every cry of destitution, he may well be called a

benefactor of the human race. From the age of eleven, when George Peabody was taken from school, until he was nineteen, he was a clerk in various dry goods houses, but at that time he became a partner with Mr. Elisha Riggs, of Georgetown, D. C. The new business consisted of the importation and sale of European goods, and the entire charge and management of the business devolved upon Mr. Peabody, a "boy of nineteen," as some of Mr. Riggs' friends sneeringly styled him. In 1815 the business had increased to that extent which made it impracticable to carry it on in Georgetown, and they removed to Baltimore, where banking was added to their regular business. In 1820 Mr. Riggs withdrew from active participation in the cares attendant upon such an enterprise, and the style of the firm was changed to Peabody, Riggs & Co. They had for some time been the financial agents for the State of Maryland, and their banking business had become very extended. In 1836 a branch house was established in London, as their trade in British manufactures was so great as to seem to demand it, and in 1837 he removed there to take charge of it. Since that time London has been his place of residence, though he always considered America his home. This year was one of the most remarkable in our history. A very large number of banks suspended payment; manufactories were closed; mercantile houses were ruined, or stood trembling upon the brink of ruin until saved by almost superhuman efforts. The credit of the United States seemed for the time to be disgraced, and American securities were a by-word with the nations of Europe. It was then that the strength of Mr. Peabody's character and the firmness of his standing was proven. It is said there was not half a dozen men in Europe who would have been listened to in this matter, but his judgment commanded the respect to which it was entitled, and his opinion carried weight with it. He stood firm in this time of trial, and the reproach was gradually removed. From this time forward he stood amongst the foremost merchants in the world. His business was increased, his vessels ploughed the main freighted with the products of Europe and America. His bank grew in popularity and was a source of great profit.

Mr. Peabody was very proud of America. He loved his birthplace even more for his exile, and a cherished purpose was to return there some day and make his home with his people. For a

great many years after his arrival in London he celebrated the anniversary of American Independence with religious exactness, and only relinquished the practice when the whole body of American residents observed the day with public services. In speaking of the manner in which he organized his business establishment he once said: "I have endeavored, in the constitution of its members and the character of its business, to make it an American house and to give it an American atmosphere; to furnish it with American journals; to make it a center of American news, and an agreeable place for my American friends visiting London."

It was mainly owing to his exertions that American enterprise was properly represented in the Great Exhibition. In speaking of this, the Hon. Edward Everett said: "In most, perhaps in all other countries, this exhibition had been a government affair. Commissioners were appointed by authority to protect the interests of the exhibitors; and, what was more important, appropriations of money had been made to defray their expenses. No appropriations were made by Congress. Our exhibitors arrived, friendless, some of them penniless, in the great commercial Babel of the world. They found the portion of the Crystal Palace assigned to our country unprepared for the specimens of art and industry which they had brought with them; naked and unadorned, by the side of the neighboring arcades and galleries fitted up with elegance and splendor by the richest governments in Europe. The English press began to launch its too ready sarcasm at the sorry appearance which Brother Jonathan seemed likely to make; and all of the exhibitors from this country, as well as those who felt an interest in their success, were disheartened. At this critical moment, our friend stepped forward. He did what Congress should have done. By liberal advances on his part, the American department was fitted up, and day after day, as some new product of American ingenuity and taste was added to the list,—McCormick's reaper, Colt's revolver, Powers's Greek Slave, Hobbs' unpickable lock, Hoe's wonderful printing presses, and Bond's more wonderful spring governor,—it began to be suspected that Brother Jonathan was not quite so much of a simpleton as had been thought. He had contributed his full share, if not to the splendor, at least to the utilities of the exhibition. In fact, the leading journal at London, with a magnanimity which did

it honor, admitted that England had derived more real benefit from the contributions of the United States than from those of any other country."

Mr. Peabody was, so long as he lived, as simple and unaffected as in the days of his poverty, followed his methodical, exact business practices with the same rigid system which was never changed. He gave away millions of dollars without a second thought, but insisted upon receiving a penny if it was his due. He several times visited America, going back to England always more pleased with his native land, more proud of his birthplace. He marked each visit with a magnificent gift. Education and Religion, public and private charities were the recipients of his bounty, and rich and poor alike blessed him. His own relatives, some of whom he never saw, received from one to three hundred thousand dollars apiece; friends of his boyhood who were in poor or straightened circumstances, were handsomely provided for. London, more than any American city, seems to be the gathering place of Christ's legacy to his disciples, as if he had been there when he said, "The poor ye have always with you." And to the squalor—stricken multitudes George Peabody has been a friend steadfast and true. He has made them his care from year to year, never wearying of well-doing, satisfied if he might smooth an otherwise rugged path, or sweeten a bitter draught from whence pallid lips might not turn away, or bring hope and comfort, love and peace into the home where poverty and suffering had set their seal. So marked was his benevolence and thoughtful care for this class, that Victoria presented him with her portrait painted expressly for him, costing nearly $50,000, in token of her grateful appreciation of it.

When Mr. Peabody last visited America he was in ill health and suffering severely, and believing that he might improve more rapidly in London, returned thither, but received no benefit from the change, and died there November 4, 1869. The news of his death was received with the strongest demonstrations of sorrow, and grief was in every household. The world will never know how much it owes this good man, since such was his unostentatious kindness—often his right hand knew not what his left hand gave.

The following list includes all his public donations, of which a record has been preserved:

To the State of Maryland, for negotiating the loan of $8,000,000	$ 60,000
To the Peabody Institute, Baltimore, Md., including accrued interest	1,500,000
To the Southern Educational Fund	3,000,000
To Yale College	150,000
To Harvard College	150,000
To Phillips' Academy, Massachusetts	25,000
To Peabody Academy, Massachusetts	25,000
To Peabody Institute, etc., at Peabody, Mass	250,000
To Kenyon College, Ohio	140,000
To Memorial Church, in Georgetown, Mass	100,000
To Homes for the Poor in London	3,000,000
To Libraries in Georgetown, Massachusetts, and Thetford, Vermont	10,000
To Kane's Arctic Expedition	10,000
To different Sanitary Fairs	10,000
To unpaid moneys advanced to uphold the credit of States	40,000
Total	$8,470,000

JOHN HOWARD.

JOHN HOWARD, the philanthropist, was born at Hackney, London, in 1726. His father was immensely rich, but from an impression which he entertained that his son, then about eighteen years of age, had not quite done sowing his wild oats, made a will by which the young heir of the Howard estate was prohibited from controlling his property until he was twenty-

five. His guardian apprenticed him to a grocer, but the disgusted representative of a long line of independent gentlemen scorned the idea of serving his time, and accordingly purchased his indenture and set out on a continental tour; but was not absent long, and on his return to London, married his landlady, who was nearly double his own age, out of pure gratitude to her for care received during sickness. The gratitude was beautiful, no doubt, and perhaps commendable, but the lady did not long survive her new honors, but died ere their honeymoon began to wane. The spirit of adventure drove our hero out into the world again, and he started for Portugal with a view to explore the ruins of Lisbon, after the earthquake. The vessel in which he sailed was attacked by a French Privateer, the crew and passengers were made prisoners, and for some months he not only suffered the loss of his personal liberty, but all the horrors of prison life, and so vivid were his recollections of that dreary and horrible confinement, that upon regaining his liberty by exchange of prisoners, his first and earnest efforts were to bring the subject before the public and the parliament of Great Britain. He now married a second time, but this marriage also unhappily terminated soon, his wife dying, and leaving him an infant son. He resided on one of his estates near Coddington, and gave his time to the management of his property and the education of his child. But a terrible misfortune, the saddest, perhaps, that could have come to him, came in the hopeless insanity of his boy, upon whom he had set his heart, and in whom centered all his pride, his ambition and his hopes. He was obliged to place him in an asylum, and then, every tie broken which bound him to a domestic life, gave up his entire time to benevolence, and using liberally his immense fortune in the amelioration of the sufferings of prisoners, convicts, the insane, the blind, and idiots.

He inspected every public prison in the United Kindom, also in France, Switzerland, Germany and Holland. His attention was attracted to infectious diseases, and he entered into an inquiry as to the cause and cure of the plague, on account of the terrible ravages of that disease in the south of Europe, and in the countries of the Levant. He visited those countries, passing through the plague-stricken districts, and giving it his own personal attention, and on his return to England he published an account of his

travels, with a description of the Lazarettos of Europe, to which the attention of scientific men was attracted, and the public mind was very much excited over the, until then, unknown wrongs of so large a class of people, and the terrible sufferings of many more.

Again he quitted England's shores; again for the sake of humanity he exiled himself from people and kindred, hurrying through Holland and Germany, to Petersburg and Moscow, on, to the shores of the Black sea,—on, still on, through pestilence, famine, cholera and, more dreaded than all else, the plague, until at last he was himself stricken down almost before his life had reached its noontide, and died as he had lived, strong in the Christian's faith and the rude people of those half-barbarous lands, recognizing the holy purpose, the noble zeal, the lofty impulses which gave his years and his wealth to a cause that was so little in favor, yet so much in need of friends, raised over his lonely grave, in a quiet spot eight miles from Kherson, an obelisk on which was the inscription, "He lived for the good of others." He died Jan. 20, 1790.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

THIS distinguished philanthropist was born in 1759, at Hull. From the grammar school in his native town he was sent to Cambridge, and as soon as he reached his majority was chosen to represent Hull in Parliament. His extreme youth prevented him from taking an active part in the proceedings of the legislative body. But though silent, he was a most observant and deeply thoughtful member, and not an act escaped his eye, or a speech his mind. His first strong effort was in favor of abolishing the traffic in human beings as slaves, and a speech which he made on this subject, when in his second term, was considered a most powerful argument, and from that time forward he labored

steadily and faithfully until his object was effected. Even in that first appearance, he won the name of being one of the most brilliant, effective and eloquent of English orators. A violent opposition to his measures at once sprung into existence, and the whole array of British talent was against him; but at the next session he again introduced the subject, despite its unpopularity. The public mind was not yet sufficiently enlightened to demand the passage of his bill, and it was overruled and put down by a large vote, and it was not until 1806 that it passed both Houses and his bill abolishing slavery became a law. Mr. Wilberforce was looked upon as the champion of the cause of humanity; and testimonials and expressions of gratitude poured in upon him from all parts of the country. At that time it was much more difficult for a man in Mr. Wilberforce's circumstances to be a Christian than now, and peculiarly difficult for a young and popular man to declare to the world that it was only in accordance with the high principles of Christian morality that he had acted, not from desire for, or love of public approbation. The publication of his "Practical View of Christianity," a work in which he rigidly and carefully compared the defective religion of that day with the standard of the New Testament, formed an era in the religious history of the country. His life and character was a beautiful commentary on the principles laid down and developed in his book. Through all his life he bore the reputation of a consistent Christian, in whom was no blame, and though such characters may not be rare now, in that day they were, amongst those who mingled in high life, and were subject to the temptations of court life. He was esteemed and respected by all parties; and while the poor looked to him as a benefactor and protector, the rich and great felt honored by his friendship. He died July 28, 1833.

GEN. LA FAYETTE.

MARIE Paul Jean Roche Yves Gilbert Motier, Marquis de La Fayette, is one of those characters that, belonging to a past generation, is brighter to-day than yesterday, and will be brighter to-morrow than to-day, because we learn with passing time the richness of the heritage of glory and freedom which they forsook home and friends, wealth and ease, to purchase for us. At the age of twenty he left his girl-bride, who it is said buckled his sword with her own fair fingers, and smiled through her tears as she bade him "God-speed," and fitting out two vessels with arms and provisions, sailed for Boston, where he was received by Washington with delight, joined the ranks as a volunteer, was wounded in the first engagement, and commanded the vanguard of the army at the capture of New York. When peace was concluded, he returned to the mother country, and found himself a hero, lionized to his heart's content. At home, as in America, he embraced the side of the people, and demanded for them popular rights.

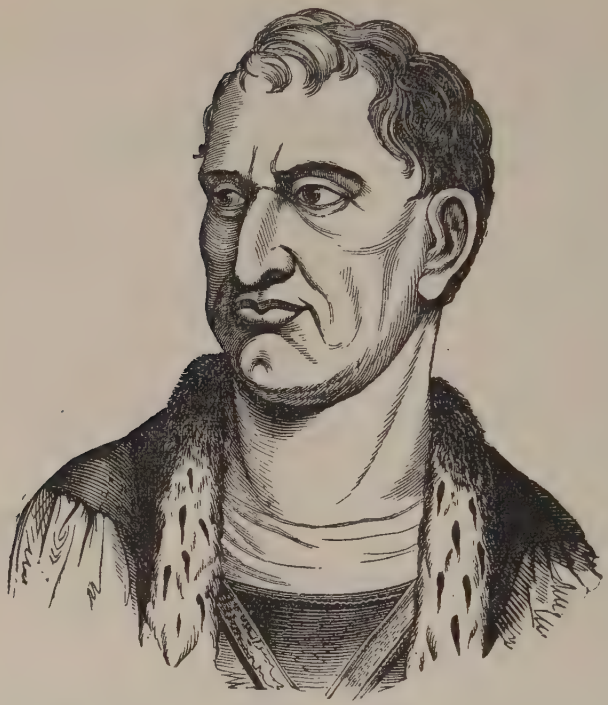
In 1789 he proposed the "Declaration of Rights," which he had brought from the New World, and proposed it as the basis of a constitution. The insurrection of 1790 was the result of his endeavor to establish a Republic. The French people of that day are what they are now, volatile, excitable, brave, rash, easily discouraged, and easily dissuaded, it seems as if for them it had been written—"unstable as water, thou shalt not excel."

La Fayette's attempt to found a republic was a failure. The powers of Europe, looking on, began to close in with their armies around France, and armies were raised to meet them; and La Fayette led them out to defend their own soil, as he had led in the defense of ours. At his headquarters at Sedan, he heard of the bloody tragedy of the 10th of August and of the imprisonment of the Royal family. Agents were sent to the different departments

and the reign of terror was fairly instituted; orders were given for the arrest of all the generals, and but one course was left open—to sacrifice the lives of his army, or to fly. He chose the latter, but was surrounded by the Austrians, captured, and confined in the gloomy dungeons of Olmutz, in Moravia. The rigors of his imprisonment were so severe that his health failed under them, and it was not until repeated efforts were made that they were relaxed, and a mitigation of his severe sufferings permitted. At length he succeeded in effecting his escape, but was retaken, closely confined, fed upon scant portions of bread and water, threatened daily with execution, and suffering untold agonies of uncertainty as to the fate of wife and child, whom, when he last heard from, were in prison in France. The Grandmother, mother and sister of his wife had perished on the scaffold; she herself was destined for the same fate, but was saved by the downfall of Robespiere. Freed from a dungeon in France, she hastened to Austria and kneeling at the feet of Francis II., pleaded as only a wife could plead, for the remnant of the life of her husband,—prayed for the broken, shattered wreck, a gift, not to his country, but to herself, and failing to receive the boon, determined to share his captivity.

General Washington wrote to the Emperor and demanded his release, with as little effect, and it was not until Napoleon was master of the destiny of Europe that La Fayette breathed once more the free, sweet air of France. Nothing could ever draw him from private life again. Offices in America, the best our government could offer in her gratitude, and the entreaties of Napoleon alike left him unmoved, and nothing but the peril of his country called him from retirement.

The Bourbon dynasty was re-established, and La Fayette, having seen tranquility restored, visited America for the last time. Again revolution sweeps over France. Charles X. and his family are fugitives. Louis Philippe is on the throne,—La Fayette at the head of the national guards, and a hollow peace was restored, which fortunately lasted as long as the life of the patriot. He died May 20, 1834.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS was a Genoese, and born in the year 1435. His father was a wool-comber, and his ancestors were humble people. With the exception of one year spent at Paris, his education was conducted in his native city, and confined to such studies as fitted him for the sailor's life for which he was destined by his father. He went to sea at fourteen; at twenty-one we find him at Lisbon, and in 1470 on the African coast, seeking alike for gold and employment by the Portuguese government. He was now thirty-five years of age; tall, straight, handsome, dignified and commanding in appearance, his hair already whitened by exposure and the care and anxiety attendant upon his position. He married at this time

Felepé Môdis de Palestrello, daughter of an Italian gentleman, deceased, who had been a navigator under the patronage of Prince Henry, and who had colonized and been governor of the Isle of Porto Santo.

Columbus gave much of his time to drawing maps and charts, made several voyages to the coast of Africa, also to the Canary and Azore islands, and in 1477 made a voyage to Iceland. Long before this date he had conceived the idea of reaching India by a westward course, and supported this theory by the views of Aristotle and other ancient writers. The great problem of the time was *how* to reach India by sea, and he offered his services to John II. of Portugal to solve it, if he would give him an expedition for this purpose, and well-nigh succeeded, when some unknown agent prevented the king from acceding to his wishes. Columbus, disgusted with a monarch who had everything to win, at so trifling a risk, yet feared to venture aught, left him and went to Spain. He entered Spain alone, without friends, and in great poverty, but his pleasing manners won him both respect and attention, and friends came at his bidding. He soon made his way to the king and queen, to whom he told his plans, his hopes and his disappointments. His enthusiasm was contagious, and the will to aid him was good, but the uncertainty appalled men; and for seven long years he waited in suspense that made it seem a lifetime to the ardent and impatient navigator. At last, weary with the painful waiting and tired of the suspense, he left the court and started for France; but two of his friends waited upon the queen and she was persuaded to give her support, and promised even to pledge her jewels to obtain the means for his outfit. Columbus was then sent for; the king furnished men and ships, and the fleet, consisting of three vessels and twenty men, sailed from Palos, August 3, 1492. At ten o'clock at night, October 11, Columbus first saw lights moving in the far distance, and gazing intently, was satisfied that land was ahead. At two o'clock, a sailor in one of the other boats, a little in advance, saw the land—a lovely little island—San Salvador, one of the Bahamas. Soon after Cuba and Hayti were discovered, all of which he supposed to be portions of Asia. It is believed that he never knew to the contrary. The discovery produced the most intense excitement in Europe, and upon his return he was received with transports of joy by the

king and queen of Spain, and every honor and attention lavished on him.

In September, 1493, he sailed from Cadiz with seventeen ships and 1500 men, and discovered the islands of Jamaica, Porto Rico and the Windward isles. In his third voyage he discovered the islands of Trinidad, Orinoco and Para. At this time Columbus found the new colonies which he had planted in a sad state of disorganization, and remained some time to set things to rights and restore order; but complaints reached Spain, and a commissioner was sent out to make an examination, who so far exceeded his orders and authority that he arrested Columbus, his son and brother, and sent them home in irons. Spain was in a fever of indignation; the king declared his innocence of any such orders; the queen was kindness itself, but the admiralty was not restored to Columbus.

In 1502 Columbus was sent on another voyage to discover the passage from the Caribbean Sea into what was then supposed to be the great Indian Sea, and came near discovering Mexico, but died never knowing how narrow was the step between himself and more of glory than he had ever dreamed of. He returned at the end of the year and appealed to the king to remove from his name the partial disgrace resting upon it, and restore his title, but in vain. Like many another, since his time, the king had used his tool as long as it was profitable to him, and now wearied of the one who had served him faithfully. *Columbus was not the last who learned the bitter lessons of man's ingratitude;* but his heart was broken by the lesson that he was too proud to learn in humility, and he died at the age of sixty-seven. Tardy and partial justice was done his son after the father's death, but only when he had appealed to the law against the king.

CAPTAIN COOK.

CAPTAIN JAMES COOK was born at Marton, near Stockton-upon-Tees, October 27, 1728, and was apprenticed to a haberdasher at the age of thirteen, but having a strong inclination for the sea, was transferred into a coal company, and soon became so skillful a sailor as to be promoted to mate. In 1759 he offered himself as a volunteer for the navy and through the influence of friends obtained command of a sloop, and went into service against the French. In 1764 he was appointed marine surveyor of New Foundland and Labrador, and ten years later was sent out in command of a ship which went to the Pacific to make astronomical observations. All the phenomena were successfully observed and he then sailed in search of the southern continent, which was supposed to exist. He sailed far enough to prove that New Zealand and New Holland were not parts of the continent, if it existed, and he set out to circumnavigate the globe, to settle the question beyond doubt. He was gone three years, and was the first man who traversed the Pacific at that high latitude of 70 deg. 10 min.

The result of this voyage was the greatest excitement, and he was raised to the rank of post captain, and appointed to Greenwich Hospital. The question of a southern continent being set at rest he turned his attention to a north-western passage between the Atlantic and Pacific. An offer of a prize of twenty thousand pounds and the king's ships to the discover, induced Captain Cook to lead another expedition. He set out in the ship "Resolution," and made many important discoveries, among which were the Sandwich Islands, where he returned to winter. The first night after his arrival one of his boats was stolen by the natives, and the next day measures were taken to recover it and prevent a repetition of the act. For this purpose Cook attempted to carry the aged king on board his ship, but on reaching it the King

refused to embark, and his wives, who had followed him, set up a most dismal lamentation The howl was caught by those next of kin, and repeated from lip to lip until the island echoed with it, and the natives came in swarms to defend their chief. The savage crowd, seeing him a captive, were maddened to perfect fury, and rushed upon Captain Cook and his men, four of whom, with their commander were killed. His mangled remains were torn and hewn in pieces, and only the bones recovered by his surviving crew. In the extent and value of his discoveries, Captain Cook's surpass those of any other explorer. He was killed October 14, 1779

DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

THIS greatest of modern travellers was born at Blantyre, Scotland, on the banks of the river Clyde, near Glasgow, March 19th, 1813. His great-grandfather was a soldier and fell on the gory field of Cullodin, and his grandfather was a farmer of Ulva, one of the most beautiful of the Hebrides. Campbell's story of the eloping lovers, which was no doubt intended to be, and probably is, a timely and beneficial warning to all hard-hearted fathers, who do not desire to be "left lamenting," locates its scene somewhere here, since the hero explains to the boatmen who thought the water too rough to be entirely safe:—

"O! I'm the chief of Ulva's isle,
And this Lord Ullin's daughter."

At the age of ten he was put into the factory of Blantyre, and says that with his first earnings he purchased the Rudiments of Latin, and gave every spare hour to its study—indeed it was ever his favorite study, and he pursued it for years with undiminished ardor. He was carefully taught the principles of Christianity, and

"free salvation" was a doctrine that he imbibed as readily as he breathed the air of heaven. He began the study of medicine in the same way that he did of Latin, with but little help; and yet so closely did he devote himself to it that at twenty years of age he finished his studies and was admitted to a Licentiate of Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons. Partly from a strong desire to see the world, and partly from a christian desire to carry the glad tidings of redemption to the nations that sit in darkness, he had decided to go to China with a party of missionaries, but the opium war, raging at that time, made it dangerous, or at least inexpedient, and he turned his eyes in the opposite direction, and transferred the field of his studies and labors from China to Africa. In 1830 he sailed for Africa, under the auspices of the London Missionary Society, which sent out no creed nor sect, but the Gospel of Christ,—the plan which met his views most satisfactorily. Reaching Lattakoo, which is the farthest mission station from the Cape, he at once struck out for the North, into the Backwain country. For twenty years he has wandered to and fro over that vast continent, of which so little is known, sending, from time to time, accounts of his valuable researches and discoveries. His "Life and Explorations," written by his own pen, have made the world so familiar with him and with his movements that it is unnecessary to give them here. Far over the deserts, deep into the jungles, o'er the bosom of beautiful lakes, to the source of mighty rivers, and to the crest of lofty mountains where never a white man's foot had rested before, in the tents of the savage tribes, in their villages, in their cities, where never a white man's face was seen, under the feathery palms, and where date-trees hung their slender, fruit-laden branches over the green oasis, went this man who, for the love which he bore his race had become an exile from home, country and friends. Suddenly, while the eyes of the world were fixed on the solitary traveler he disappeared from their sight, and his fate was enveloped in mystery and shrouded in darkness and dread. until Henry M. Stanley, the daring American, found him in Central Africa and supplied him with stores necessary to continue his journey to discover the source of the Nile. But death overtook him and he passed away, May 4th, 1873, at Ilala, Central Africa.

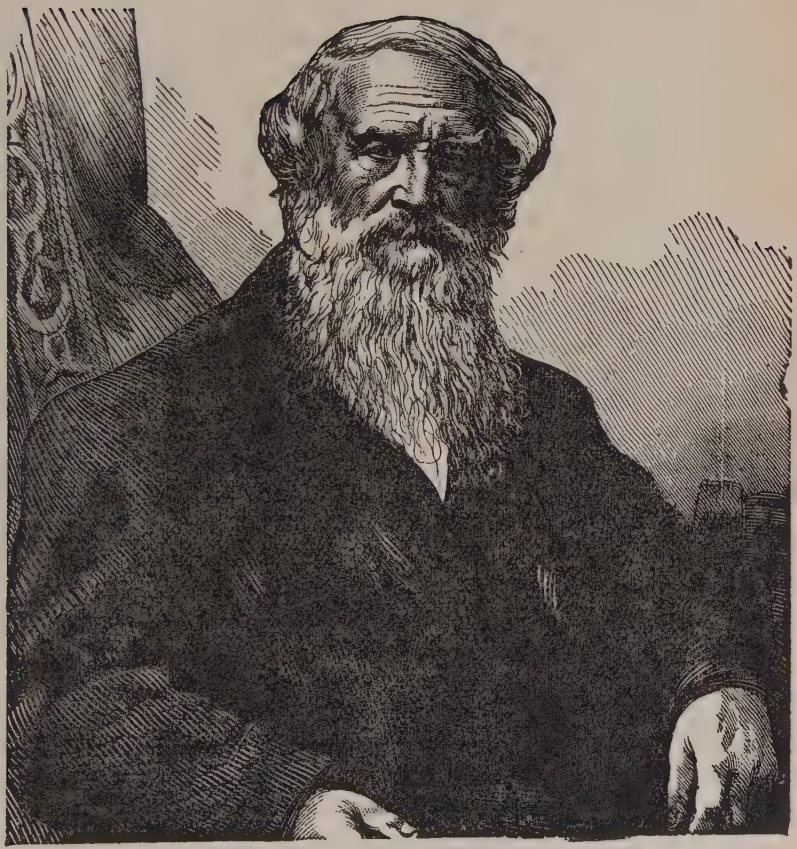
DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE was born in Charleston, Mass., 1791, graduated from Yale in 1810, adopted the profession of an artist, and studied abroad under West, Copley and Alliston. His first work, a model of a dying Hercules, received from the Adelphi Society of Arts a gold medal, which was presented by the Duke of Norfolk in the presence of the foreign Ambassadors. After spending three years in Europe he was forced to give up his studies, for want of means to pursue them. In 1829 Mr. Morse again went abroad for the purpose of completing his studies. In Europe, for three more years, he visited and tarried in every large city on the continent, especially where art flourished. In 1832 he sailed from Havre for New York, to accept the position of Professor of the Literature of the Fine Arts, which had been tendered him. He had always felt a strong interest in chemistry and natural philosophy, and had given much time to the study of both. During the interval between the first and second trips, he delivered a course of lectures upon the Fine Arts, alternating nights with Professor J. F. Dana, who lectured upon electro-magnetism, illustrating his remarks with the first electro-magnet ever exhibited in America. The two professors became warm friends, and passed many hours together in discussion of the principles of electricity. Soon after, the electro-magnetic instrument was presented to Morse. His pursuit of the science was very thorough, aided by the magnet, with which many experiments were tried, and it is said that his investigations of the subject were deeper than those of any other man in America. The theory, so full of mystery then, and so incomprehensible to most of the passengers, was discussed on board the boat in which he returned from France, several of the passengers being professional men, and some of them fine scholars, who were given to deep research. The subject of such deep interest to Professor Morse came up

among others, and one gentleman narrated the experiments he had lately witnessed, "the object of which was to prove how readily the electric spark emanated from the magnet, and how quickly it could be disseminated." The party were sitting upon the deck when this was told, and one by one, as evening drew on, they withdrew to the cabin, or to their staterooms. At last the shadows had deepened into night, but one still form had not moved, or changed its position. The moments multiplied themselves into hours, and still he sat there, studying and working on this one great problem, that he had never seen before. When the moon rose up in the midnight sky and silvered his locks as if with age, he looked out over the broad waters with a new light in his eye—the light of a new life and a new purpose. In his lonely and silent vigil he had traced out the path that should lead him to fame and renown; he had planted seeds in the past which, knowing now how to water and tend them, would yet bring him an abundant harvest; yea, he had builded better than he knew. He had found the solution of a mystery that had haunted him. No more art for him; no more days of dreaming; no more coquetting with the coy godess who held her laurels too high for him to reach with brush and canvas. *Now* she would come and offer them to him, and plead his acceptance of the gift she so long withheld. She would shower her treasures over him whether he would or no. Every one knows Mr. Morse was very practical, and he lost no time in thinking, but set at once to work; and before the end of the voyage he had wrought out the idea, and completed the drawings for the electric telegraph, also the "electro-magnetic and recording telegraph, substantially and essentially as it now exists." This was in 1832, but he did not complete the first instrument until three or four years later. This, like every embodiment of the ideal, was far from being equal to the invention, as he still held it fixed upon the retina of his mind. He made repeated experiments and improvements, and succeeded in sending messages over the wire half a mile or more.

In 1840 he obtained his patent, after long and vexatious delays. Little confidence was felt, even amongst scientific men, that the invention would ever be brought into common use, or be of any practical use in long distances; but his own faith in it was boundless, and he petitioned the Government for an appropriation to



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.

enable him to put up an experimental line from Baltimore to Washington; for Morse, like many another genius, had more brains than money, and more talents than influence. Considerable interest was felt in the subject, both by Congress, and throughout the country; and scientific men, moved by his own enthusiasm and earnestness, began to ask if really there might not be something in it after all.

In 1838 Morse went to Europe to try to interest the nations over the sea to seek abroad that aid and encouragement he had failed to meet at home. Here, again, he was disappointed, and returned to America weary, worn, disgusted, saddened and grieved by his disappointment.

In 1842 he again laid the subject of his telegraph before Congress, and again asked the same aid he had before. His pecuniary circumstances had not improved, and he was unable to do anything himself—unable to afford even the expense of remaining in Washington during the session; and he waited almost hopelessly as day after day passed and nothing was done; and his patience waned as did his small store of money, and grew rapidly but *not* "beautifully less." Up to the last day, and the last night of the session nothing had been done for it, and at a late hour of the night he returned to his hotel, packed his valise and made all preparation to go to New York the next day. A sleepless night brought him no rest, and a gloomy, morbid, bitter sense of wrong, neglect and injustice still rankled in his mind; his heart throbbed wearily with its weight of pain, as he sat over his coffee and morning papers at the breakfast which he could not swallow. His eye passed listlessly over the items, while his thoughts wandered aimlessly away. So he had looked twice at a paragraph, and dreamily looked at it the third time, before he realized that it was really himself and his own bill; and that it announced that at the very last moment it had passed, and that thirty thousand dollars had been appropriated to his project. He could not believe his own senses; he sought his hat, and forgetting his breakfast, forgetting his weariness, he rushed with toilet half made to the capitol, to learn if it was true. It is said that when he was convinced that the hour of victory was at hand —that the struggle and pain were past, and that the morning of the dense dark night was dawning, the overstrained nerves gave

way, and the strength that had supported him in his despair failed him in his triumph, and he sat down and wept like a child, and like one of old, "he recked not that men saw." Work on the experimental line was at once begun, and on the 25th of July, 1844, it was completed. The trial was made before all the government officials and a large number of invited guests. Prof. Morse seated himself at the instrument, and with a sense of triumph that was pardonable, since Cæsar never won a victory like this, and with his heart throbbing wildly to the songs fame sung in the distance, for he knew that wealth and honor would crown him at last—ah! *at last!*—sent his first message to Baltimore, and received an immediate answer. For two hours messages were sent and answers received with a rapidity which astonished every one but Morse; and while the spectators were wild with delight, this man, whose whole future hung upon the experiment; this man, who had suffered tortures of fear and suspense; who had staked everything upon the success of his invention, and who had scarcely a dollar in his pocket, sat, apparently calm and unmoved. Let the future bring him what it would, there could never be in her treasure house another hour of such unmixed joy, and no glory like the glory of that day.

Offers for the use of his invention flowed in upon him, and telegraph companies were organized all over the country. In fifteen years after that first trial morning, it is estimated that there were 150,000 miles in operation; and his system is adopted all over the globe. His patent brought him a speedy and immense fortune, and those countries that were most tardy to do him justice were ready enough to force their acknowledgments of his genius upon him; it is said that he has received more marks of honorable consideration from the crowned heads of Europe than has fallen to the lot of any other inventor. From Napoleon III. he received the Cross of Chevalier of the Legion of Honor; from the King of Denmark, the Cross of Knight of Danebrog; from the King of Prussia, a gold medal; from the Sultan of Turkey, the decoration of Nishaun Iftichar in diamonds, and from the Queen Isabella of Spain, the Cross of Knight Commander of the order of Isabella. In 1859, at the suggestion of Napoleon III., representatives from the various European powers met to decide upon an appropriate token from all the nations. France,

Turkey, Russia, Sweden, Holland, Austria, Belgium, and Sardinia, Tuscany, and the Holy Land were represented, and presented, in the name of the united governments, the sum of 400,000 francs, as a token of their appreciation of his labors.

Mr. Morse was also the first experimenter with, and inventor of, the submarine telegraph, and was with Cyrus W. Field from the first to the last of that mighty enterprise that enabled two worlds, wide sundered by a waste of waters as drear and wild as that over which Noah's dove looked in vain for a resting place, to bid defiance to the wrath of Neptune, and, sitting each upon the soil of home, speak as friend to friend.

Prof. Morse died in April, 1872, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Russia to India, the cities and nations have mourned for the world's benefactor.

ELIAS HOWE, JR.

THERE is not, in all the length and breadth of our land, a tired and over-worked mother, groaning under the accumulation of household sewing which the fingers, ready and skillful though they be, can not find or make time to do, and whose over-burdened heart and brain have been relieved and made to sing with joy by the possession of the "Household Fairy," who will not be pleased to know something of its inventor. For, though the clarion voice of fame may boast of our telegraphs over land and through ocean, of our magnificent steam printing presses, of engines which are more wonderful than stories of Arabian Nights' Entertainments; may talk of fire arms, whose deadly work upon the battle-field is more sure and fatal than that of the pestilence which wasteth at noon-day; may sing of the sculptor's or the poet's art and tell of those who have made their names im-

mortal as financiers, or diplomatists; yet a woman's heart beats high with gratitude as she remembers him whose cunning and patience and skill broke the chain of her bondage to toil that consumed her midnight hours, to poverty that robbed life of every blessing, and too often drove her to sin at which she shuddered, even while she embraced it, or into a suicide's grave.

The "Song of the Shirt," with its vivid picture of degradation and suffering, is a song and a picture of an era that is passed, thank God, forever; and now, when care and anxiety and suffering had set their seal on women's faces until they had grown prematurely old and gray, peace and prosperity have come through the sewing machine.

The inventor, Elias Howe, was born in the town of Spencer, Massachusetts, in 1819. Besides himself there were eight children, and his father was in straightened circumstances, so that there was need that each child, as it became old enough to work, should contribute to its own support. His education was very meager, and his delicate health prevented his working hard; besides, he was slightly lame, and so was unfitted for farm or other active labor. When he was sixteen years of age he went to Lowell, hoping to make his fortune in the mills of the place, but he did not remain long there. He went to Cambridge, and obtained employment in a shop where, with his cousin, Nathaniel P. Banks, he worked upon a hemp carder. In a few months he went to Boston, and there, at the age of twenty-one, he married a loving girl, and if, as commentators sometimes remark, it was a rash, ill-advised step, it was, in one sense at least, a good thing for the world, for his health was so poor as to render it almost impossible for him to work, and the necessity for bread, which drives some to crime, in like circumstances, sharpened his inventive faculties, if, indeed, it did not actually give birth to his genius. Three children, wee, tiny, birdies, were born to him, and the young father's heart yearned over them with a love that was pain in itself, as his strength failed day by day, and his scanty earnings would not and could not be made to cover more than the barest necessities of life. He labored patiently and conscientiously for them, but he did it with a heart-broken hopelessness, which only those who have tasted the bitterness of abject poverty can understand. The world, like a child testing its undeveloped powers, was beginning

to think everything could be done by machinery, and, like the little one who, wearied of every toy, sat down amid them and cried for the moon, knowing full well it must cry in vain, this overgrown baby world declared it must have a sewing machine, that the want was imperative and must be met, while in the same breath in which it clamored for it, it declared it could never be made—that the want could never be met—it was no use for any one to attempt it. Howe, in the midst of his poverty and suffering, listened, as one listens to voices in a dream. No man could need money more than he; at the same time he knew he had talents of the highest order, though they had never been tested. There was a silent but imperative power within him which struggled for a being and an acknowledged existence, and here was something which others dare not attempt. If he succeeded, fortune and fame were his; without it, life was a burden too utterly dreadful to be long borne. He was now in that state when a man attempts desperate things; and he turned over the matter again and again in his mind, and determined if human being could accomplish it, he would. He watched his wife hour after hour, as the cunning fingers drew the shining steel through the fabric, and tried from this to get the clue to his plan. He invented one machine which sewed in imitation of hand work, but he perceived at once that it was not what he wanted and not what the world wanted, either; but it was a whole year before he learned that the machine need not at all imitate the human hand in its work. From this he stepped independently aside, and labored to invent something on an entirely different principle, and he conceived the idea of using two threads and forming a stitch with a curved needle and a shuttle. Now he had the secret, at least the secret of the stitch; and with wire and wood he constructed a rough model of his own machine in October, 1844, and operated it to his entire satisfaction. He now gave up his position as machinist, and removed to his father's house, for his poverty was extreme, and he could scarcely provide bread for his family. He had the model for his machine clearly worked out in his brain, but had not a dollar nor a farthing to do anything toward making a machine or getting a patent. In this strait he applied to a gentleman, a Mr. Fisher, who was a man of some property, and whom he knew could help him if he would, and succeeded in interesting him to that extent that he formed a

partnership with him upon the terms that Mr. F. would furnish the money to build the model and advance also enough to support his family and defray his expenses, and in return would receive half the profits on the machines. The terms were gladly accepted, and Mr. Howe went to work, toiling all day, and often all night; and in April his machine was finished. In May, 1845, he made two suits of woolen clothes, one for himself and one for his partner, upon it. He procured his patent, and tried to dispose of his machines to tailors, but found, to his astonishment, that he could not dispose of a single machine. Its ingenuity was praised, and of course every one wished him well, but good wishes alone would not support his family; and when his partner gave it up in disgust and withdrew from his business, poor Howe was disheartened to that extent that he set it away and obtained a place as engineer upon a railroad, where he remained until his health utterly failed and he was obliged to return home.

Not long after this he went to England with his machine, but found no encouragement there, as elsewhere, but at length received the offer of twelve hundred and fifty dollars for the machine he had with him, and fifteen dollars per week to operate the machine in making umbrellas. This was not what he had hoped for, but it seemed the only thing he could do, and he accepted in a sort of hopeless despair, and sent for his family to join him. He remained in this position but a few months, for his master's temper was unendurable, and they were better apart. Dark as had been the gloomy life he had led for years, the darkest of all his sad days came to him now. A stranger—without a friend in England—poor health, a sick wife, and three children on his hands—his case was sad indeed, and their sufferings were great, but at length in some way he obtained the means to send his family home again, remaining himself in London. At last he became utterly discouraged and gave up all hopes of bringing his machine into use here, and pawned his model and patent papers for money to return to America. When he arrived at New York he was almost penniless, and before he had time to look around, think of wages and means, or mark out any course for himself, he received intelligence that his wife was in the last stages of consumption—probably dying. We cannot picture his anguish as he listened to this sad intelligence. We cannot, and no pen can convey to you any just

idea of the bitterness that filled the heart that bled with its agony. From first to last his life then seemed to have been made up of a succession of failures, each succeeding one more humiliating and more complete than the last, and *she* had shared them all, had shared his sorrow and his poverty, her life had been darkened by the shadow from his own; and now, in spite of the efforts he had made to win wealth and honor, efforts made more for her sake than his own, she was dying—dying in dependence and want—dying, and he had not the money to go to her, and was too feeble to walk a mile. Of all his dark days this was the darkest, and he felt, as he never felt it before, that Fate had singled him out as the object of her scorn and abuse. When at last he reached his wife, she was breathing her last, and he wept such tears over the still white face of the dead as rarely fell from the eyes of man.

Soon after his return he learned that during his stay in London his machine had been largely copied by parties who had the means to manufacture and introduce them, and having a patent which was full and ample to cover all his rights, he set to work to defend them; and now, by one of those strange revolutions of fortune which go farther than anything else to disgust one with human nature, everybody was ready to help him. The most bungling prophet could see *now* that success must crown him, and there were plenty desirous to aid and prove their regard for him. The decision of Judge Spurgeon, in 1854, settled the suits in his favor. From that time forward prosperity flowed in upon him, and he accumulated a large fortune.

The strangest thing, perhaps, in his life, was the fact of his enlisting as a private soldier in the Seventeenth Regiment Connecticut Volunteers, with whom he went to the field and performed all his duties until his failing health compelled him to return home. He was a patriot in the strongest sense: he fought for his country because he believed it had claims on him, and because he disdained that his gold should buy him a substitute, who, falling on the battle field would leave a responsibility on him that he could not meet, here or hereafter.

Howe died in Brooklyn, in 1867, and from the East to the West, from the north to the south, in all lands of the old world and the new, wherever woman's skill ministers to fashion or comfort, to luxury or necessity, by every hearthstone, and in every home, the

busy hum of the sewing machine will keep his memory green in grateful hearts through all generations to come.

ROBERT FULTON.

A FACETIOUS author calls our men of genius "freaks of nature;" but looking at the array of men whose talents have made them comparisons in history, I can but think Nature is in a mood for indulging herself in "freaks" very often. America has in a very great degree been blessed in the number of which she has been the *alma mater*. Her democratic principles foster in every son, yea, and daughter too, of her soil the desire to be all that God gave them power to be, and do something by which the world will remember them when they have been gathered to their rest. The pen and brain love to dwell on the mighty works which these children of genius have achieved, and one of the mightiest monuments which living man ever built with his own hands to his name, is to be found in the floating palaces that

"walk the waters" of every land beneath the sun, the work of Robert Fulton.

He was born at Little Britton, in Pennsylvania, in 1765. He was an artist and a genius from his birth, and while a mere child, used his pencil with great skill, and loved it so well as to chose painting for a profession, and at the age of seventeen, established himself in Philadelphia as a portrait and landscape painter. At the time when the bold conceptions and dainty skill of West had made him the idol of Europe, Fulton determined to go abroad and study under some of the great masters. It was while he was the guest as well as pupil of Benjamin West, that Fulton, then rising rapidly in his profession, met many scientific men, and was advised by the Duke of Bridgewater to turn his attention to engineering. He discovered what others had overlooked in the young American, a peculiar aptitude for mechanism and certain qualities of intellect which would make him master of the law of motion in any or every form. He also formed the acquaintance of the Earl of Stanhope, a man of fine talents, yet exceedingly visionary and ideal. Fulton's first experiments were with a missile which he invented to be used in time of war—a torpedo for destroying gunboats. He failed to accomplish anything with this, but his attention had by this means been directed to water craft, the clumsy and uncertain means by which they were propelled, and the great need of a better means of locomotion. Watt was already experimenting with steam, and it is quite probable, if not certain, that Fulton's genius lay more in adaptation of ideas than in fertility of origination. When the engine had been invented by another, Fulton saw at a glance, as even its own inventor did not, and never would, to what use to put it. His first experiments were made in France, but they were completed and put into practice in America. Mr. Fulton and Mr. Livingston made application to the Legislature of New York to grant them the exclusive right to navigate its waters by steam, and its unhesitating and unqualified consent was the strongest expression they could give of their contempt for a project which they thought, and the world thought, would never be carried beyond the mad brain of its author.

The engines for Fulton's first boats were ordered from England, and the boats were built in America in 1806. A trial trip was

announced, to which all the political, literary and scientific men of New York were invited. In all that assembly there was scarce a man who believed in the success of the experiment, or looked upon it as anything but an object of ridicule. There were a variety of opinions as to the object of Fulton, all more or less expressive of their contempt for him and his purpose; while all were unanimous in their verdict that it was money thrown away, and that inventor and invention alike would come to no good. The vessel was unshapely—there is no denying that—a coarse, clumsy, heavy, ungainly thing; and as, at the word of command from Fulton, she began to move away from the shore and plow her way through the foaming waters, faces that were wreathed with smiles of scorn, or with skeptical sneers, began to straighten with interest, the interest to give place to wonder, the wonder to awe; and at last, as the fact of locomotion became established beyond a doubt, and Fulton's triumph was assured, shouts and cheers rose, again and again, and from a visionary impostor they elevated him, at one revolution of opinion, into something almost superhuman. The "Clermont" then started on her first long trial trip, and ever after the tongue of doubter and skeptic were silent. The navigation of the Hudson by steam now became a fact; the Clermont became a regular passenger boat, while Fulton watched closely and steadily for every opportunity to detect flaw or fault in her machinery, and many important improvements were made. However, if the "course of true love never did run smooth," neither did the course of any inventor whose invention was of interest enough to provoke opposition, and Fulton soon found competition, even though he had been granted the "exclusive right of navigating all the waters of New York by steam." Other boats were started upon the river, propelled by steam in the same way as their own. This was so clearly an infringement on Livingston and Fulton's rights, that they applied for an injunction, which was refused by the court of chancery, after which it was carried to the court of errors, which granted it. They now added a number of new boats to their line, and largely increased their business. About this time were heard murmurs of discontent from those who wished to enter into this branch of business, and not unfrequently the mass of the people joined against Fulton and declared that the legislature had no right to allow him to monop-

olize what should, and must be in time open to all. Great interests were at stake—none knew yet the magnitude of the interests—perhaps none even guessed them, or had any idea how vast the transportation of freight and passengers would yet be.

Fulton did not live to see his great invention carried to completion, or to perfection. The State of New Jersey had declared Fulton's monopoly unconstitutional, and in the spring of 1815 his partner endeavored to have the decision revoked, but failed. Mr. Fulton had been attending court, and returning to his home, was exposed to very severe weather, caught a bad cold and was seized with a very violent illness, partially recovered, but had a relapse, from which in his weak state he could not rally. He died on the 24th of February, 1815. His loss was felt by the community at large, and every token of respect was paid him by the citizens of all the Eastern States and cities, and by the public journals.

RICHARD M. HOE.

NOTHING marks more sharply and distinctly the mighty strides which the world has taken in the arts and sciences, and in the more substantial and truly useful inventions which have elevated the human race, than the perfection to which printing has been carried; and to realize this fully, one need but observe the working of one of our modern presses, as the beautiful sheets are printed and thrown from it with lightning rapidity, and compare its work with the rude, clumsy and almost unintelligible hieroglyphics of the ancients.

Foremost among those who have laid the world under lasting obligations, standing high above the masses as a benefactor of his race, and one whose name will be remembered

RICHARD M. HOE.

so long as food must be gleaned for the hungry laborer in the fields of literature, or from those same fields must be gathered amusement for those who "toil not, neither do they spin," is Richard M. Hoe, the inventor of the steam cylinder press, who was born in New York city, in 1812. His father was a man of more than ordinary talents and ingenuity, and engaged in the manufacture of printing materials.

It is said that young Richard disliked the business exceedingly, and refused to walk in the "way his father trod," preferring to be a carpenter. He seems to have inherited all his father's ingenuity, and possessed some that was original. His first invention was a method of grinding saws, or rather, perhaps, an improvement on an old method, for which he obtained patents both in America and England.

Previous to this, however, his father's health failed, and Richard took his place in the firm of which he has been a member. They were now manufacturing a press of their own invention, at least so-called, but really an imitation of, and improvement on, the Napier Press, of England. When Mr. Richard M. Hoe returned to New York from London, he at once confined himself to this branch of their business, and produced the machine so well known as Hoe's Double-Cylinder Press, thought at that time to be the very perfection of human skill in mechanism, and still extensively used.

In a few years the progress which the newspaper interests had made far outgrew this, and something better was so imperatively demanded that Mr. Hoe taxed his brains to the utmost to invent something that would work with accelerated speed, but in vain; for four years he experimented to no purpose. The difficulties were too great, and the solution of the problem was still far from him. At times the idea seemed to be almost defined, then, when he strove to grasp it, eluded him like a "will o' the wisp"

Through the day he worked steadily at his business, but when night came, and he sat down to think, the shadow haunted him like a troubled spirit, and he again resumed the study; but the more he thought and experimented, the more impossible it seemed to reach the desired result. With patience exhausted he was about to abandon it in despair, when suddenly, like lightning swift leaping from the summer sky, or like some trick of magic, the plan by which the types might be secured on a horizontal cylin-

der came to his mind. He had mastered the difficulty, and in the hours of that night, when sleep was upon the children of men, he wrought out the plan of the mightiest conception that man ever knew. In the morning he had upon paper the magnificent Lightning Press; matured his model, carried it to Washington, obtained his patent, and to-day the machine is incomparable and unrivaled.

Mr. Hoe is also the proprietor of the Adams press, and has very extensive machine works both in England and America, indeed the largest of the kind in the world. The ten cylinder press costs fifty thousand dollars, and is considered cheap at that; it strikes off twenty-five thousand sheets per hour, and is capable of exceeding this. The inventor is still studying to improve it.

No one who has not seen the gigantic machine at work can ever form an idea of its vast power, or imagine the magnitude of the task of bringing it to perfection; for the simple hand-press, easily worked by a child, was the tiny germ from which the mighty genius of Hoe developed this magnificent master-piece of machinery.

Mr. Hoe is still a young man, not far advanced in his fifties, and bids fair to live to bless the world in the future, as he has in the past, for many years to come. He is a just man, one who walks "uprightly before God," and whose observance of the golden rule has passed into proverb with those who know him most intimately. No better thing can be said of one than this—no other criticism of human character or conduct could be so high a compliment.

GEORGE STEPHENSON.

GREAT results are born of great efforts; while patient endeavor stands faithfully by, watching jealously, that never, mid pain and suffering, under discouragement or even in disgrace, shall the brain cease its labors of maternity until her idea

is matured and given to the world as perfect as human ingenuity can develop it.

To no one thing are the nations of the earth so much indebted as to steam. In a most especial manner is the New World, in its mighty strides from a feeble germ whose very life seemed to depend upon the tolerance of her natural foes, to the strongest republic, if not the strongest of all civilized nations, dependent upon steam for the strength which lent her power to go with gigantic strides toward the goal, and reach it in the glow of her sturdy national youth, while those who were far advanced in years when she was born came in long after her in the race. Not only do we possess the longest railroads in the world, but the cheapest, and we no longer wait for civilization to ask for them to be run to their doors, but with the sturdy tramp of genii, they make their way through mighty forests where never the woodman's axe rang, and never a sound broke their silence until the engine's shrill whistle echoed through the depths of the tangled jungles and slumbering valleys; and while yet the Red man looked on with dusky eyes dilated with wonder, the teeming emigrant followed fast in its wake, and villages and cities sprang up beside it, and the desert blossomed as the rose.

The inventor of the present system of locomotion was George Stephenson, a very humble person for the first half of his life, afterward looked to from far and near as the peer of any or all of those who were the acknowledged benefactors of their race.

He was born June 9, 1781, in a collier's tenement house, in the little village of Wylam, England. His father was a thrifty man, foreman at a shaft engine, on a salary of twelve shillings a week. The Stephensons removed to Dewly Burn before George reached his eighth year, and in this cold and cheerless place the child found his first employment in weeding turnips and tending cows, at the magnificent remuneration of two pence per day. From his earliest childhood he looked to the time when he should be an overseer, or have charge of an engine; and the ambition, modest as it seems now, was a bold one for the boy whose surroundings were all of so depressing a nature. He kept alive his child-like hopes by building mud engines, with hemlock stems for pipes, and he built mimic wheels, that to his imagination seemed capable of bearing them to the uttermost parts of the earth. Faint foreshad-

owings were they of the magnificent locomotives of which they were the forerunners. While he was a mere boy his father appointed him assistant foreman at the Durley pit. He neglected no opportunity of making himself acquainted with the duties of the engine-room. He studied the machine by night and day, and he loved the dumb thing like a brother, or something dearer still; while a personal friendship that was almost worship, sprung up in his heart for the engine he controlled. At the age of fifteen he was appointed engineer in a colliery, and he shouted triumphantly, as if to the Fates who controlled his destiny, or would thwart his plans, "I am made for life." At eighteen years of age he was quite a celebrated engineer, but otherwise wholly uneducated. He had never attended school, and could neither read nor write. He was laboriously engaged through the day, yet after that he still stood beside his pet, cleaning and caring for it like a mother for her child.

He now began to feel that the want of education was a serious drawback to his future progress—a bar which he must surmount and with that firmness which was characteristic, determined to remove it. Old as he was, he went to the village school, and began with his A B C, like a little child, and so earnestly did he apply himself, that before he was nineteen years of age, he could write his name in a bold, legible hand, and read passably well. Subsequently he studied arithmetic, mathematics, practical and experimental philosophy, mechanics, and similar subjects with marked success. He had a fine memory and an understanding easily impressed; while he was modest, and never afraid to admit his ignorance.

In 1802 he removed to Wellington Quay and was married. After remaining here three years he removed to Killingworth, where he was overtaken by a severe calamity in the death of his wife, and then went to Scotland. After nearly a year's absence he returned to Killingworth, where his only child, a little son, Robert, was being nursed.

A man like Stephenson, who understands well the machines under his control, and who takes pride in them, will always be in a way remarkable, and have opportunities for displaying his ingenuity, but the first really important test to which his skill was put, was remedying the defects of an engine which had defied the skill

of all the engineers in the neighborhood, and even of the maker himself. Stephenson remedied the difficulty at once, and received for it ten pounds and the position of chief engineer of the colliery. In 1812 he was made engine-wright; when, being relieved from manual labor he could give his entire attention to machinery. He had given a great deal of thought and study to the subject of railroads, and was perfectly familiar with every experiment that had been made to introduce the locomotive. Their heavy and cumbrous wheels, cogs, screws, pistons and levers had been tried in the conveyance of wagons, but the speed was so slow, the wear and tear of machinery was so great, that every experiment was abandoned. That it *must* come into use, Stephenson felt sure, and his mighty mind grasped the advantages that would result from the application of a power so enormous as that of the locomotive, if once it were brought into perfect subjection. Setting himself to study it out, he worked until he was satisfied he had found the secret of so many disappointments, and unhesitatingly declared he could make a better engine himself, in which he was encouraged by all the colliery proprietors by whom his ingenuity had so often been tested; and Lord Ravensworth at once advanced money for the necessary expenditures, in remembrance of which Stephenson called his first engine "My Lord." This locomotive, after ten months of anxious labor and constant personal supervision, was completed. It fully justified his boast; still the experiments with it, although satisfactory to every one else were not so to him. He found it defective in many points, and so far—*so far* from his ideal—yet, though many improvements were afterwards added by the author, this mechanical contrivance contained the germ of all that has ever been effected since.

The use of steam for the transportation of passengers had never been dreamed of. The Stockton and Darlington railroad was the first completed road in the world, and was opened for traffic on the 27th of September, 1825, and one of Stephenson's engines tried. It was attached to a train consisting of six wagons loaded with coal, then the passenger coach, filled with the directors and their friends, then twenty-one wagons fitted up with seats for passengers, and lastly, six more wagons filled with coal; making, in all, a train of thirty-six vehicles. "The signal was given," says a local chronicler of the time, "and this immense train, drawn by

a single engine, started off at a speed of twelve miles an hour. A large passenger traffic immediately sprung up, and was, of course, a source of unexpected profit to the road. With the successful issue of the Stockton and Darlington project, the practicability of railroads became an established fact, and other schemes were at once set on foot. The Liverpool and Manchester was the most important road, and was bitterly opposed by the canal proprietors, whose monopoly it destroyed; but at length the bill was granted, and Stephenson was appointed engineer of the line. He gives a humorous account of his cross-examination before the House of Commons, of the conditions upon which an engine could be used upon the road, and finally of the trial of the four different engines which competed for acceptance before the directors. The judges had declared ten miles per hour to be the greatest speed possible for an engine to make, but the average speed of Stephenson's "Rocket," during her trial trips, was twenty-nine miles per hour, or three times that given. The other engines were tried, but proved so inferior that the "Rocket" was accepted, and a prize of five hundred pounds awarded.

Other engines made by Mr. Stephenson far eclipsed the "Rocket," and when the "Northumbrian" conveyed the body of a gentleman who had met with an accident a distance of fifteen miles in twenty-five minutes, the incredible speed burst upon the world with all the force of a new and unlooked-for phenomenon, and Stephenson's fame was made, and his career fairly inaugurated. Orders came in from all parts of the world for his engines; his workshops were crowded with artisans, and he was recognized as the first engineer in his country. His personal services were much in demand, and every one who was desirous of constructing a road endeavored to obtain his influence. He paid a visit to France, Belgium and Spain, and was received with the highest honors, and every mark of distinguished attention. In Spain he had a long illness, from which he never wholly recovered. His constitution, so strong and vigorous was broken, and he died on the 12th of August, 1848, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

In the latter years of his life he was greatly assisted by his son Robert, who rose to be the first engineer in the world. Mr. George Stephenson was one of the most remarkable instances of a truly self-made man. He would never admit that he had more

genius than others, but was proud of his perseverance and strength of purpose, to which he attributed his success in life. In his case we see a man struggling with the direst poverty,—born in it, cradled in it, reared in it,—meeting and fighting it at every step, yet never losing sight for one instant of his determination to master the problem that had so long baffled others, and to unfold the mysteries that slept in the womb of possibilities, and to break the fetters of the giant who, once free, would be a mightier power than was known on earth. "I have fought," he said, "for the locomotive nearly twenty years, having no engineers to help me until I had raised engineers under my own care. The school of engineers were college-bred men; they wrapped themselves in their professional dignity, and would not meet me in former years, because by the most patient drudgery of hand and brain I worked out for myself my ideal. I have persevered, *and I have conquered.*" He was modest in his deportment, and when a poor man carefully preserved his self-respect, and never was guilty of an act which could impair it. His thirst for knowledge made his poverty respectable, and when he rose to a higher position and associated with men of the highest standing and influence in Britain, he took his position with as much quiet self-composure as if he had been born to the purpose. They wondered at the ease and dignity of his deportment, and men in the highest ranks of life pronounced him one of "nature's gentlemen."

ELI WHITNEY.

NO no one man does the North and South alike feel under so great obligations as to Eli Whitney. But for his genius the great staple of the South could not have been prepared for the manufacturers of the North in quantities sufficient

to make it a popular article of commerce. True, in time the need for the article must have forced a way for its preparation, but the time was *then*, when the means must come, or the work must languish and the people suffer for want of one.

Eli Whitney was born in Westborough, Worcester county, Massachusetts, December 8th, 1765. Inclinations of his mechanical genius were developed at a very early age. In a hundred little ways the ingenuity of the boy showed itself, and like many another ingenious boy, his father and friends shook their heads in sorrowful regret, and indulged in sad misapprehensions of the worst that could befall him—at least, in the opinion of the strict, frugal, industrious New Englanders, a shiftless manhood.

From the age of nineteen, young Whitney conceived the idea of obtaining a liberal education, and partly from the avails of his mechanical labors, partly by teaching school in the winter he was so far able to overcome the obstacles that lay in his way, as to prepare himself to enter the freshman class at Yale college, in 1789. After taking his degree in the autumn of 1792, he engaged in the capacity of private tutor to Mr. B., of Georgia, but on arriving in that city found another had taken his place, leaving him without resources or friends, save in the family of Gen. Greene, of Mulberry Grove, with whom he had formed an accidental acquaintance. These people, with true southern hospitality, invited him to make their house his home, where he commenced the study of the law. While there, Mrs. Greene was engaged in a sort of embroidery called tambour work. She complained of the frame she used, saying it tore the delicate threads, whereupon Whitney, eager to do anything for a lady to whom he was so deeply indebted, set his wits to work, and constructed one so superior in every way that she was delighted with it and considered it a great piece of ingenuity.

A short time after the family were visited by a party of gentlemen, mostly officers who had served under the General in the Revolutionary War; and they were discussing the impossibility of being able to make the cotton crop, otherwise a staple in the south, a source of profit while the labor of removing the seeds by hand was so great and so tedious; and that until ingenuity could invent some machine to do the work of which they were hopeless, it could never become a marketable article or

a source of wealth to them. Separating one pound of the clean staple from the seed was a day's work for a woman;—it must be given up. An idea occurred to Mrs. Greene. Her woman's intuition had read the character of Mr. Whitney, and she believed it only required an opportunity to develop his ingenuity for him to make a mark in the world. Said she, "Gentlemen, apply to my friend Whitney, here; he can make anything;" at the same time showing the tambour frame and several other articles which he had made.

She introduced them to him, extolled his genius and commended him to their friendship. He modestly disclaimed any claim to mechanical genius, and on their mentioning the subject, declared he never saw a cotton seed in his life. Mrs. G., however, had accomplished her object, which was to introduce him to some influential men, who should assist him in making a start in life in some way. No one foresaw the change it would make in his life.

This interview, so accidental on his part, was the turning point with him, and he resolved, if it were possible, to invent something which would bring him fame; and the motive which stimulated him, was above his own personal interests, was a wish, or determination that the lady whose kindness had stood him in hand in this utmost need, and who had so high a confidence in his ability, should not be disappointed. He communicated his design to Mr. Miller, who so far entered into his plan as to give him a room in his house wherein to carry on his work. He set to work under every disadvantage, having to make his own tools, and even to manufacture his own wire, an article not to be procured in Savannah. Near the close of the winter the machine was so near completion as to leave no doubt of his success. As yet, no one knew of his plans except Mrs. Greene, and Mr. Phineas Miller, who was a native of Connecticut, and a graduate of Yale college. He was a lawyer of fine local reputation, and after the death of Gen. Greene, became the husband of his widow.

He had considerable means at his command and proposed to be at the whole expense until the machine was completed, when he would be joint proprietor, and share in the profits of the sales; and legal documents were drawn up, declaring that if the machine was successful, "all the advantages and profits arising therefrom

should be mutually and equally shared between them." An invention of so great value to the agricultural interests of the country, could not long remain a secret, and the knowledge which soon spread through the State was the cause of so intense an excitement that multitudes came from all parts to see a machine which was to revolutionize everything in the South, and under whose influence their waste acres would "blossom as the rose."

So determined were some of the populace to obtain possession of the treasure, and neither law nor justice could restrain them, they actually broke into the room at midnight and carried off the machine. By this means the public became possessed of the secret, and before he could complete his model and secure the patent, quite a large number of machines were in successful operation, constructed with some slight deviation from the original, with the hope of eluding the penalty for violating the patent right.

As soon as the partnership between Miller and Whitney was formed, Mr. Whitney repaired to Connecticut, where he was to perfect the machine, obtain a patent, and manufacture and ship to Georgia such number as would supply the demand. The greatest difficulty experienced by men in that day was the scarcity of money, and the difficulty of obtaining means sufficient to carry on any enterprise.

In April, 1793, he returned to Georgia, when the demand for the machines was immensely large. Enormous crops of cotton had been planted, with the expectation that the new gin would enable them to market it at little expense. In March, 1795, Mr. Whitney went to New York, and, in the midst of perplexity and discouragement, he was confined to his bed three weeks with fever. As soon as he was able, he went to New Haven, by packet, where he learned that his shop and all the machinery were destroyed by fire. Thus he was suddenly reduced to bankruptcy, without the means of making payment. His mind, however, was not one to sink or yield under such trials, but seemed to gather strength from all the opposition it met. Of a similar spirit was Mr. Miller, and the following extract from a letter of his to Mr. Whitney shows how brave was the *moral* strength of the man—how undaunted the courage which met what, to another, would have been defeat. "I think we ought to meet such events with

equanimity. We are pursuing a valuable object by honorable means, and I believe that our measures are such as are justified by virtue and morality It has pleased Providence to postpone the attainment of this object. In the midst of the reflections called up by our misfortune, and with feelings keenly sensitive to the loss, and injury, and wrong, we have sustained, I feel an exultant joy that you possess a mind similar to my own—that you are not disheartened—that you will persevere and endeavor, at all hazards, to attain the main object. I will devote all my time, all my thoughts, all my exertions, all the fortune I possess, and all the money I can earn or borrow, to compass and complete the business we have undertaken; and if fortune should by any future disaster deprive us of our reward, we will at least deserve it. It shall never be said that we lost an object which perseverance could attain. I think it strange, indeed, if two young men in the prime of life, with some share of ingenuity, with a little knowledge of the world, a great deal of industry, and a considerable command of property, should not be able to sustain this blow, heavy as it is." After this the company began to be very much straightened for money; but Mr. Miller expressed a confidence that they should be able to raise funds *in some way or other;* though he knew not how. While they were thus overwhelmed with misfortune, intelligence came from England that the cotton cleaned by their gin was ruined by the machinery. The news threatened the death blow to their hopes. At this time, 1796, they had thirty gins in different parts of Georgia. Some of these, owing to this report, were even then standing still. The company had $10,000 in real estate suitable only for ginning cotton. The strain upon the mind of Mr. Whitney was so great that it almost gave way under it. It seemed impossible to extricate himself from the accumulation of misfortunes; and he wrote to Mr. Miller as follows: "Our extreme embarrassments are now so great that it seems impossible to struggle longer against them. It has required my utmost exertions to exist, without making any progress in our business. I have labored hard to stem the strong current of disappointment which threatens to carry me down the cataract, but have labored with a shattered oar, and in vain, unless some speedy help comes. Life is but short at best, and six or seven of its best years are an immense sacrifice to him who makes it. My most unremitting

attention has been given to my business; I have sacrificed to it other objects by which I might have gained thirty or forty thousand dollars. My whole prospects have been bounded by it with the expectation that I should, ere this, have realized something by it." Honest merchants, who were neither bribed nor prejudiced gave their testimony in favor of Whitney's gin, and had it not been for the extensive and shameful encroachments upon their rights, they would have been successful. It seemed impossible to obtain justice in any court in Georgia. The companies and corporations who opposed them were as twenty against one; and the juries were influenced, and bribed, and bought, where, indeed, they were not personally interested. They would now gladly have relinquished the plan of using their gins, and satisfied themselves with disposing of their rights, but none would buy what they could use with impunity.

In December, 1802, Mr. Whitney negotiated a sale of his patent right with the State of South Carolina. The Legislature laid a tax of 25 cents upon every saw employed in ginning cotton; to be continued for five years; and as some of the gins, indeed most of them, had forty saws, it promised to pay better than any other disposition they could make of it. About this time Mr. Goodrich, an agent of the company, entered into a similar negotiation with the State of Tennessee. This State had by this time begun to realize the importance of the invention, and the citizens testified to their strong desire to come into possession of its benefits. The Legislature therefore passed a law laying a tax of 37½ cents per annum for every saw, for the space of four years, to be faithfully paid over to the patentee as fast as collected. Thus far prospects were favorable to the patentees, when, through the influence of enemies, the Legislature of South Carolina suddenly annulled her contract, refused to pay any more, and sued for the refunding of what had already been paid. Mr. Whitney felt this most keenly, as is shown by the remonstrance which he presented to the Legislature. The State of Tennessee followed the example of South Carolina in annulling her contracts, and a similar step was undertaken in North Carolina; but a committee to whom it was referred declared, "the State ought to fulfil its engagement with punctuality and good faith," which resolution was adopted by both Houses. There were high-

minded men, in South Carolina, too, who felt keenly the disgrace their State had brought upon itself, and the bitter injustice done Mr. Whitney, and were indignant at the measure adopted by the Legislature of 1806. Their sentiments produced so marked an impression on the minds of the public that they fairly compelled the Legislature to rescind their last decision, paid up all arrears, and signified their respect for Mr. Whitney by marked commendation. In Georgia the tide seemed at last to turn in their favor, and where the strangest injustice had been met and the deepest wrongs borne, were found those who viewed with scorn and contempt the base frauds imposed upon him. At this time a new and unexpected responsibility devolved upon him. Mr. Miller, who had at first been enthusiastically confident of realizing a large fortune, had yielded to the perpetual disappointments that met him at every turn, and had sunk under them, and died, broken-hearted by the neglect and wrong which had been heaped upon them.

Again, the United States Court, held in Georgia, in December, 1807, gave a most important and triumphant decision in his favor, but the time of the patent had nearly expired. More than sixty suits had been instituted in Georgia before a single decision on its merits was obtained. A gentleman of much legal experience, who was well acquainted with Mr. Whitney's affairs in the South, and sometimes acted as his legal adviser, says, in all his experience in the thorny profession of the law, he has never seen such a case of perseverance under such difficulties, "nor do I believe I ever knew a man who would have met them with equal coolness and firmness, or would finally have obtained even the partial success which he had." Becoming deeply impressed with the uncertainty of all his hopes founded upon the cotton gin, notwithstanding all their high promise, he began seriously to look around for some business in which superior ingenuity, persevering industry, and rare business qualifications, which he must have been conscious of possessing, might bring him at least a competency. The business which he chose, in accordance with his mind upon this subject, was the manufacture of arms for the United States. He addressed a letter to the Hon. Oliver Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury, by whose influence he obtained a contract for the manufacture of ten thousand stand of arms, four thousand of which were to be

delivered by the first of September of the ensuing year; the balance within one year from that time. Finding it impossible to complete them in time to fulfil his contract, the Government, in the most liberal and generous manner, extended the time to eight, instead of two years. The great improvement which has been made in arms under his supervision, and the direction of his genius, has been acknowledged by the government, and laid the country under permanent obligation to him. He now obtained a contract to manufacture for the United States fifteen thousand stand of arms, and a similar contract from the State of New York, and in the year 1822, Mr. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, admitted, in a conversation upon the subject, that at the two public armories alone, the government was saving twenty-five thousand dollars per annum through Mr. Whitney.

In 1812 he again attempted to secure a renewal of his patent upon his cotton gin, and, although he proved clearly his right to the invention, and that it was giving to the Southern States an annual income of at least three million of dollars, still, he failed; but his manufacture of arms was gradually bringing him affluence and fortune. In January, 1817, he married Miss Henrietta Edwards,—daughter of Hon. Pierpont Edwards, of the District Court of Connecticut,—and fortune seemed to smile upon him, as he saw his family circle increased by a son and two daughters; then death, which comes to all, took from the community this patient and good man, whose genius had benefited all mankind; and the demonstrations of respect and regard which were manifested by the citizens of New Haven proved how deep and sincere were their regrets for his loss.

CHARLES GOODYEAR.

CHARLES GOODYEAR.

THE method by which to utilize the catechu, that was so abundant in the East Indies and in South America, had long been sought. Ships had brought it over as ballast from time immemorial, and one and another had attempted to render it useful in the manufacture of those articles for which it seemed so perfectly adapted, and which the world stood in need of. France was the first to put it to any real use, not far from the year 1820, by weaving strands of rubber with the threads of the goods for garters and suspenders; and also, to some extent, for blacking and polish. The first pair of India Rubber shoes were exhibited in Boston, 1820, and it is said that they were so intensely homely as to be little less than monstrosities, and were looked upon more as curiosities than otherwise; but a few years later the annual importation reached five hundred thousand pair. Indeed no lady thought herself well dressed in stormy weather unless she had on a pair of the horrid things; but they were so undeniably ugly that only the fact that they were fashionable, and cost five dollars per pair, made them even tolerable. In the winter they froze solid; in the summer they melted, and must have been every way a nuisance. Yet it seemed absolutely certain that it would some day come into general use, and that the process of preparation was a simple affair when once it was discovered; and Yankee ingenuity and Yankee inquisitiveness was sure to find it out. A process was discovered by a foreman of a patent leather factory, a Mr. Chaffee, which was believed by himself and others to be the best thing yet hit upon. Capitalists united and formed an "India Rubber Company," and disposed of their stock readily. The excitement ran to fever height, and "all went merry as a marriage bell." But a sword was suspended by a hair above them, and disaster stared them blankly in the face. The goods, of every conceivable variety, were made in the winter; and

when the heat of summer came, they not only melted, but were so offensive in odor, that they were absolutely obliged to bury them. India rubber stock fell—or rather was thrown up by the ruined and disgusted stockholders—and they were appalled by their total and irretrievable losses. While they were still operating, however, before the final crash fell, with its overwhelming disgrace, a gentleman from Philadelphia stepped into the warerooms of the company, only from curiosity, to inspect the rubber goods, and purchased a life preserver, which he examined carefully; and finding the valve clumsy and defective, invented a better and safer one, with which he hurried back to New York, hoping to be able to sell it to the Company. This man was Charles Goodyear, whose name has since become inseparably connected with the India Rubber works. He had been engaged in the hardware business from boyhood, and through a long series of misfortunes and business difficulties, was now on the eve of bankruptcy, and hoped that he would be able to make something out of it with which to relieve himself from his present embarrassment. The agent recognized the skill and ingenuity of the invention, but knew how useless it was at the present stage of affairs to apply it to the goods they were manufacturing; and taking Mr. Goodyear into his confidence, explained the real condition of the business, and the utter hopelessness of accomplishing anything, or, of saving themselves, unless some better method were devised for preparing the gum than had yet been discovered. He told him everything with a desperate truthfulness, and admitted that the thousands of dollars' worth of goods then in the market were worse than worthless, begging him to try if he could not discover the long-sought process. He explained the process they then used, and while he admitted that it was an utter failure, prophesied that it would yet be brought to perfection, and that he should live to see the day.

Mr. Goodyear listened in silence—listened like one who dreams—listened half unconscious that any one was speaking—listened with a dim, yet clear, a vague, yet firm conviction that he had found his life work; and this proved sadly true, indeed. He went home to devote the best of his years to patient work; to days and nights of study and experiment; and while his friends considered him a monomaniac upon the subject, there was something heroic

in his devotion to this apparently lost cause. Again and again his efforts were failures; again and again entreaty, reproach and ridicule were brought to bear to dissuade him from his purpose. But without money, credit or influence; with a young family dependent upon him for support; and health already rapidly failing under steady and severe application, he kept his eye upon the success which he was determined to wrest from the future at any cost, and steadily answered again and again: "There *is* a way—there *must* be one—and *I will find it!*" Every preparation on the known earth was tried; every mineral, vegetable and chemical substance or compound which ingenuity could invent or desperation suggest, was used in vain. His friends turned from him coldly, and even the most indulgent regarded him as an idle dreamer, or as a reckless enthusiast; while others considered him a fit candidate for a residence in an insane asylum.

In 1835 he succeeded in producing sheets of gum cloth so smooth and firm as to win him a medal at the Fair of the American Institute; and for a time he seemed to have reached what he had striven for so hard, when, to his intense horror and mortification, he discovered, by the merest accident, that a drop of acid would ruin it. The next operation, and one which, unconsciously to himself, carried him to the very verge of success, was also the result of accident. He was one day bronzing a piece of rubber cloth, when, wishing to remove the bronze from part of it, he used aqua fortis for the purpose. Of course it removed the bronze, but it also removed all color from the cloth, and he threw it aside as spoiled. A few days later the incident occurred to his mind, and he thought he would find the cloth and see how it looked. He was overjoyed to find that it had grown as hard as slate under the effects of the sulphuric acid; and again he believed, this time truly, that he stood on the threshold of victory. But he had not yet found the key to open the door. He readily obtained a patent on this process of preparing the rubber, and also a partner, with a large capital, and removed his family to New York; and for a time fortune smiled upon him, when he was again reduced to beggary by the failure of his partner. He was so terribly reduced in circumstances as to be often faint and weak from hunger, and every useful, or valuable article in his possession, was pawned to keep his family from starvation. He endeavored in every way

to interest capitalists in his plans, and to induce them to examine specimens of his work, but they would have nothing to do with it; and declared, with some truth, that money enough had been wasted in such folly. His own faith in his ultimate success was regarded by his acquaintances (friends he had none now), as the maddest of lunacies.

In 1836 he succeeded in borrowing a small sum of money, and with it proceeded to Roxbury, where he met Mr. Chaffee, who had never lost his hope of the ultimate perfection of his invention, and cheerfully and cordially tendered him the use of their old works in which to carry on his experiments. He soon produced goods of so much better quality than any that had yet been made, that for a time fortune promised to reward him, and his path was bright with the delusive smile of hope, for it was but delusive; then the darkness grew dense—denser than ever before. He had obtained an order from the Government for a few hundred mail bags, and produced them in such beautiful shape, with so fine a finish, and so entirely insensible to moisture as to excite general admiration; and for a time the world was compelled to listen to the inventor's assurance that he was at last victorious; and as the proof was before them they listened willingly. But again the goods proved worthless, and for the first time in his life he was driven to despair. His possessions had been seized for debt, and his friends and family upbraided him with his folly and their sufferings. The alternative was terrible. His wife and children were very dear; it was as much—more, indeed—for their sakes than his own that he craved the fortune which success would bring him; and he *knew* he would accomplish his object in time. He knew the discovery which had eluded him so long was almost within his grasp.

It was plain to him that sulphur was the controlling agency, and that it must be through it, in some form, that the object would be accomplished, but *how*—how to subject every part of the gum to the influence of the chemical, without destroying its own original properties. He could not turn back—he could not abandon it—he could not look on and see the hopes that were so dear to him go down in ruin, or be tossed on the beech at his feet, mocking wrecks. He experimented and labored for months with a frigid, desperate determination that would have wrung

pity from the heart of even his evil genius. Had he worked for wealth alone, he might have turned to other channels, and gratified his ambition in other ways. But he aspired to be a benefactor of his race; and he believed that the generations that would live when the turf had grown green above him for many a year, would rise up and "call him blessed." He thought the work was for *him* to do—that he could leave it for no other. Thus far, experiments had revealed nothing that was of any use to him, but an accident so trivial in itself as to seem insignificant, revealed the long hoped for, long prayed for result. I have told you before that he was looked on as a monomaniac upon this subject, and few cared to have him broach it, but standing in a store in Woburn, he was telling some gentlemen something of the properties of a bit of cloth he held in his hand, when he accidentally dropped it upon the red-hot stove. The ordinary cloth would have melted at once, but this was sulphur-dressed and only seemed to harden. To those who looked on it signified nothing, but to him it was a revelation, the revelation which his prophetic soul had whispered again and again would come. He renewed his experiments and soon proved, to his own satisfaction, at least, that India Rubber, mixed with sulphur and exposed to a certain degree of heat would neither melt nor freeze afterwards; and now, nothing remained but to ascertain the exact degree of heat needed.

No more terrible existence than his at this period can well be imagined. The clouds which had long hung over him thickened and darkened until life seemed almost intolerable. He was deeply in debt, and in the sorest poverty, while the torturing fear which haunted him, and undermined still more his frail strength, was that he should die and not be able to complete his discovery; but the most wretched drawback was his poverty, which made it impossible not only for him to work to advantage but to have even the food he needed to sustain him. He was obliged to carry his compound to the shops in the neighborhood and use the waste heat in the ovens and boilers, since he could not procure fuel to do the work at home. At this time he was universally regarded as a harmless lunatic, while his family were regarded with sympathy, and supported by charity.

In 1840 Mr. Goodyear received a letter from a manufacturing

house in Paris, offering him a handsome sum for his discovery of the use of aquafortis in preparing the cloth, but the experiments which he had since made proved that this was of no use in itself, and he disdained to profit by their ignorance. His friends were in despair over his stubborn folly, and almost without exception turned from him in anger, and declared they did not care what he had to endure. His situation was dreadful—his sufferings, both mental and physical, were intense. He was desperate, but it was a despair in which he stood firm; it was a despair that rendered him frantic, but he was resolute. The winter was long and bitterly cold, while the snow fell to an unprecedented depth, and the storms were the most violent and protracted that were ever known, and while it was almost impossible for man or brute to live out of doors, the last mouthful of food in the house was exhausted; there was not a particle of fuel; and he had not a friend or neighbor to whom he could apply, so vexed were all by his perseverance in what they called his mad projects. He was scarcely able and not at all fit to stir out of doors, or, indeed, to leave his bed, but something must be done, and he remembered a gentleman living fifteen miles away who had often assisted him, and who he believed would aid him now if he could reach him. Almost too feeble to walk, but half dressed, reduced as he was by long fasting, his sufferings, as he battled with his weakness, the storm and the bitter, *bitter* cold, can never be pictured or told; yet nerved by his agony and the thought of his helpless family, he tottered on, feeling as if every step must be the last, and again and again he reeled blindly and fell, or sat down, while his mind wandered dreamingly for a while to the probabilities that some passing traveller would find him lying there dead and stark, and he speculated, as if it were not himself, of what would be the sensation of the stranger as he looked at the cold white face—even how that face would look, and from whence would come the means to bury him—of whether it would not be better for his family, if the art he would have given his life to discover would ever be found out then, and when and who would have the reward that should have been his; and this last thought only of all, would sting him back to life and action, and once more he would stagger on and thus he succeeded in reaching the house of his acquaintance, and obtained aid sufficient to carry his family through the winter.

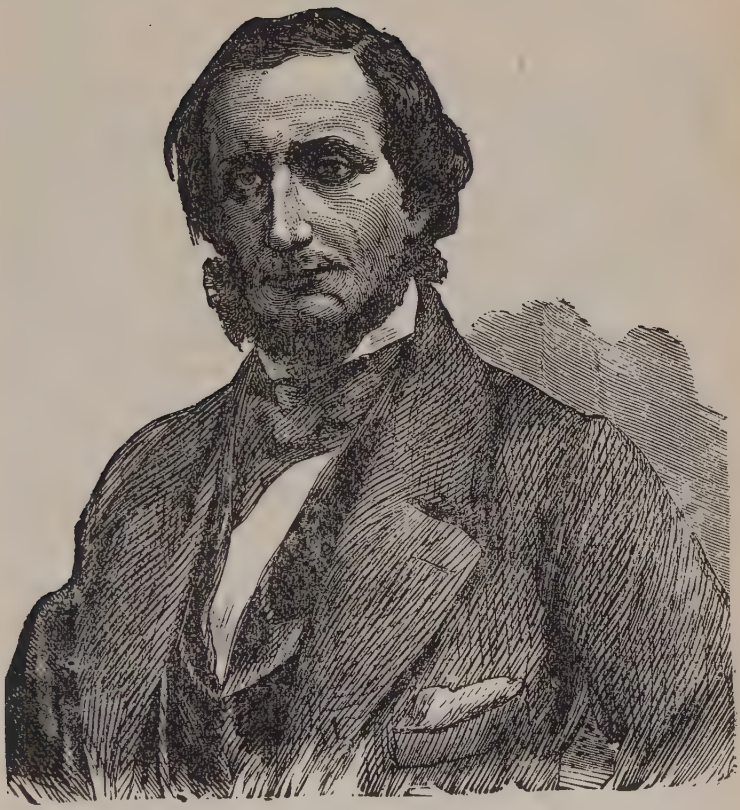
He was fully satisfied that he would never be able to raise the means necessary for work in Massachusetts, and his mind turned to New York, and he determined to make an effort to get there. To do this he first went to Boston, where he met every discouragement and utter failure at last, and returned home to meet, in addition to poverty that was absolute squalor, the shadow of the dark pinions of the angel of death brooding over his household. His baby was dying, and when the light went out of the beautiful blue eyes, and the dainty waxen fingers were folded over its sinless breast, there was not one morsel of food for the living, or a farthing in his purse. A few who pitied his wife and children, contributed some food, and the means to bury the dead birdie in his nest, and the family followed it to its little grave on foot. All this, even he was forced to say bitterly to himself, all this for the sake of something he might never win.

Could darker days or drearier nights be in store for this man? Could fate be more unkind, or bring to him a cup of wormwood and gall whose unmixed bitterness would be more intense? Yea, but there were greater sacrifices yet to be made. It cost thousands more failures—it cost him thousands of dollars, and taunts, and sneers, and reproaches that were endless. It cost him friends and position, and fortune; it cost him even his own self-respect, yet the iron will of this man, who had been born with "genius" stamped upon his brow and upon his soul, would not yield. There is a depth below which human misery cannot sink, and having reached this, and lying prostrate, crushed, helpless and blind, suddenly there arose in the east a star, heralding the approach of the day of his triumph. A relative lent him fifty dollars, and with this he went to New York, and there enlisted the sympathy and interest of two gentlemen by the name of Kieler, who advanced him the money to pursue his experiments and support his family, leaving his mind free from the care that had eaten half of his life away.

In 1844, after ten years of patient endurance of scorn, and reproach, and contempt and discouragement, he held firmly in his grasp the prize he had coveted so long—ten years of experiment, of anxiety, of humiliation, of poverty such as rarely comes to mortal, he stood at last on the crest of the wave that bore him safely to a haven of rest. In England and France he lost the

profits of his invention through the dishonesty of his agent, and in his own country was scarcely less unfortunate, and even after law had secured his rights beyond question, it is said he was too little the man of business to look after them. The Commissioner of Patents said of him: "No inventor, probably, was ever so harrassed, so trampled upon, so plundered by that sordid and licentious class of infringers known in the parlance of the world, without exaggeration, and without sufficient severity, as pirates.' The spoliation of their incessant guerrilla warfare upon his defenseless rights, have no doubt amounted to millions."

In one sense, the life of this great man seems thrown away. True, he lived long enough to fulfil his mission to the human race, but with the first heart-throb of exultant triumph, the overwrought system gave way, and in the mature prime of his years, the "silver cord was loosed, and the pitcher broken at the fountain," and he passed over to the land where there is no watching and waiting, and where the heart sickness of "hope deferred," is never felt or known. Though his reward fell so far short of his deserts, he had, it seems to us, a satisfaction very like, yet more complete than even that of Moses, as he stood on the mount and looked over into the promised land, mournful as he watched the sands of his own life ebb away, yet joyful in the knowledge that if he might not share in the blessings he had brought the world, at least those blessings were countless, and came in every form to manufactures and to science, and that art made millions of homes beautiful with the material he had brought into use and within the reach of the people. After his death, which occurred in July, 1860, an effort was made to secure something to his family, but this, too, was defeated, and though the world owed him so great a debt, they were left in penury. In the fullest sense of the term he was what he most aspired to be, a benefactor of his race, and his name can never die from their hearts or memories.



CYRUS W. FIELD.

CYRUS W. FIELD.

IT is said that the tree of knowledge is guarded by angels who stand with bare and gleaming swords to watch their treasure, lest, as they say, "Man should eat of its fruits and become like one of us;" and in the far back ages when art and science were but in embryo, when the great world herself was unconscious that under her mother-heart nestled the wee babe who would struggle into existence and mature into a giant, it might have been successfully done; but surely the grim sentinels slumbered at their post some day, and this child, already standing on the threshhold of manhood, stepped through the charmed circle of wearied and worn-out watchers, until he was surfeited, and did bring away spoils which he gave to the children of men, and they became as gods. We are going to tell you the story of one of these, in a few words, too brief and too feeble to do him justice, yet the warm and honest tribute of our hearts to his worth, and expression of our admiration for his genius.

Sixteen years ago very few persons had ever heard of Cyrus W. Field. Ten years ago he had acquired a notoriety as the vaguest visionary—a mad-brained enthusiast, who was determined to sink his handsome fortune in the sea, and consign his name to disgraceful oblivion. Mighty changes have been wrought since then, however, and no one hesitates to admit that Mr. Field is a great man, and that they knew from the first just how it would be.

Cyrus West Field was born at Stockbridge, Massachusetts, and received such advantages as the times admitted of for an education, and when he was fifteen years old went to New York city to seek his fortune. He was a bright, active, intelligent boy, and of course readily found employment with an enterprising commercial house, with which he remained, first as clerk, afterwards as partner, in various positions, until he stood at the head of the firm for twenty years. The manner in which he became interested

in the Atlantic cable was through his brother, quite a distinguished engineer, who introduced to him Mr. Frederick Grisborne, of New Foundland. He was then visiting New York for the purpose of endeavoring to interest American capitalists in a company already organized for the purpose of transmitting news more speedily than by any method now in use. Mr. Field declined to take any part in the enterprise. He had devoted his life thus far to business; and, having accumulated sufficient means to enable him to retire, felt a distaste for excitement or care of any sort. Mr. Grisborne laid his plans before him and pleaded in behalf of the company whose interests he represented, and though it had been compelled to go into bankruptcy for the want of funds, its members were not yet content to give up the work now well under way. A charter had been granted by the legislature of New Foundland, and the termini of their submarine telegraph were to be New York and London. Mr. Field listened to his guest with polite indifference, "hoped he would succeed," bowed him out of his study, and saw him depart with a sense of relief. He had not disposed of the subject however so easily as he had his visitor. The thought worked through and through his brain; its magnitude and seeming impracticability pleased him, and the more he thought, half unwittingly though it was, the more he liked it and believed it could be carried into effect. He took a globe and examined carefully the proposed route, became satisfied that it might, if run at all, be very much simplified. Its usefulness to the world was the one mighty motive which moved him—not personal elevation or aggrandizement. At length, really against his better judgment, he set to work to see if the thing were feasible, or could in any way be made practicable. With this in view he wrote to Lieutenant Maury, chief of the National Observatory at Washington, and to Professor Morse, asking if it were possible to lay a cable through the ocean in this manner which would work. Lieutenant Maury replied to him at once, expressing great interest in the subject, and sent him a report which had just been made to the Secretary of the Navy on the subject. Soundings of the ocean had also demonstrated that its bed was of such a nature as to favor the work, and the learned professor believed it not only practicable, but that it would soon be accomplished, and urgently advised Mr. Field to undertake it. Mr. Morse came in

person to consult with Mr. Field, and assured him that there was no reason whatever why telegraphs would not work as well in water as in air.

Mr. Field at once declared his willingness to take the work in hand as soon as capital enough could be secured, and proposed that ten men should contribute each one hundred thousand dollars, making their capital a million dollars, which he supposed would be sufficient to very nearly or quite cover the necessary expense. Mr. Field knew that it was a stupendous undertaking, but what it would cost him, he little imagined, not foreseeing that twelve long years would pass before it would be accomplished; that he would be led on deeper and deeper into the work, until upon its success should be staked his entire fortune; that he would sacrifice peace, rest, home and its comforts, the favor of friends, and even the confidence of the public, in a large degree, and that he would stand at the door of America and Europe—first one, and then the other—pleading like the veriest beggar, as it were for himself that he assumed the position of a mendicant, and asked their favor.

So little was the world acquainted with the philosophy and science of telegraphy, that it was very difficult to persuade them that it was anything more than a magnificent humbug, and it was sometime before he could persuade a single individual to unite with him in the enterprise. The first convert to his faith was Mr. Peter Cooper, of New York, his friend and next door neighbor. In Mr. Cooper's name alone was a tower of strength for his cause. Encouraged by the success of his efforts he set to work anew and succeeded in enlisting Messrs. Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts and Chandler White. This was not done without great difficulty, but once they had pledged themselves, they never lost.

Mr. Cooper now proposed that the five now engaged in the enterprise should continue it in their own names without waiting for more assistance from others. This being decided upon, Mr. Field went to St. Johns, with his brother, Mr. Dudley Field, who was to act as attorney for the company, and took there the necessary steps to obtain a new charter, which was granted by the Legislature of New Foundland to the "New York, New Foundland and London Telegraph Company," and by assuming the liabilities of the old company. Hastening back to New York, with a capi-

tal of a million and a half of dollars, of which Mr. Field contributed two hundred thousand, work was begun.

From New York to St. Johns, the country was a scene of desolation, an almost unbroken wilderness, and he found that even roads over which to travel and convey their supplies, must be constructed. The distance was four hundred miles—the country wild, rough, and almost terrific—at least in view of such an undertaking; but under the able management of Mr. White, vice-president of the company, who also acted as general agent for them at St. Johns, and Mr. Matthew W. Field, constructing engineer, this long stretch of road was built—four hundred miles,—also another line of one hundred and forty miles in the island of Cape Breton, and a submarine cable stretched across the Gulf of St. Lawrence; but to their dismay, when all was in working order, it had cost them a million of dollars, and the cable between New Foundland and Ireland was yet untouched.

The further examination of the ocean being necessary, Mr. Field requested the government of the United States to send out the necessary means, which was at once complied with, and Lieutenant Berryman performed the task with the utmost satisfaction to all parties. The next summer he made the same request of the British government, and Commander Daymon went over the same ground with the same results, and proved conclusively that a cable could lie easily and safely on the bed of the ocean, below currents, the anchors of vessels or the largest icebergs, and that the support it would receive from resting there would prevent dangerous tension.

It was evident to the company, now, that individual means and efforts would not be sufficient to defray the expenses, and that the two countries who were to be benefited by it to such an incalculable extent must unite in furnishing the capital. The English press was called into requisition, and through it the sympathies of the people enlisted. The effort of securing the desired aid from the British government was entrusted to Mr. Field, and to his excellent management, not less than to the necessity for the completion of the work, was the success which he met there due. The English government pledged itself to furnish ships to make the necessary soundings, and to furnish vessels to assist in laying the cable. It also agreed to pay the company an annual

subsidy of fourteen thousand pounds for the transmission of the government messages, until the net profits of the company were equal to a dividend of six per cent., and in case their messages exceeded a certain amount, extra payment was to be made. The messages of England and America were to be placed on an equal footing, and in all cases to be sent out in the order in which received. In everything England exhibited a generous fairness in its dealings, and a desire for peace and good will; and the last provision especially, since both ends rested on British soil, was exceedingly liberal. From first to last she shared equally with America in all its benefits, and gave to us every privilege she claimed for herself.

It became necessary, in addition to the aid thus given by the government, to organize a company in London, by which other funds might be raised. This was done, and a capital of three hundred and fifty thousand pounds subscribed without delay. In all his labors Mr. Field was ably seconded by some of the most enlightened and enterprising minds in the United Kingdom. Returning at once to America, he hastened to Washington to lay the matter before our own government and secure its co-operation with that of England, but to his astonishment, he met more opposition to his scheme here than in London. He was opposed by a powerful lobby and a spirit of such malignant and bitter hostility that it seemed impossible to avoid defeat. The measure barely passed the Senate by a majority of but just *one vote;* and for a time the prejudice against it in the House was intense. It received the president's signature March 3d, 1857.

Mr. Field returned to England, and in the summer everything was declared in readiness for the work. America contributed the magnificent steam-frigate "Niagara" to assist in laying the cable, and ordered the "Susquehanna" to accompany it. This was also a steam-frigate, and one of the finest boats in the navy. The British government sent out the steam-frigate "Agamemnon," a splendid vessel that had been the flag-ship of the English fleet at the bombardment of Sebastopol, and the "Leopard," an equally fine vessel, was provided as escort. Both boats were commanded and officered by the ablest men—the "Niagara" by Captain W. L. Hudson, of the United States Navy, and the "Agamemnon" by Captain Noddal, of the Royal Navy. After receiv-

ing their cable they were ordered to Queenstown, and left England in the midst of popular and extravagant rejoicing, which argued well for the feeling of the people. At Valentia, which was the eastern terminus of the line, they were hailed with delight. Here the cable was sunk and made fast, and the fleet stood out to sea, but at five miles distance the wire broke, and being spliced, after a little delay, the monster vessels moved on, slowly, very slowly, at first, to guard against a second accident. The ships kept near each other, so near that the signal bells could be heard and answered readily. We have a fancy in our own mind how grand a sight this must have been, and though to many it may seem a slight thing, a mere accident of the time, to me it is a most significant and beautiful thought, that an American's mind planned this work and carried it into effect, and that an American vessel, the "Niagara," resembling in her mighty proportions the unsurpassable cataract after which she was named, fastened the cable from her own deck to the shores of England, bearing it thence to our own, and thus, with this unseen, mysterious thing, along whose hidden pulse throbbed, as it were, the life-blood of two nations, bound them forever together as one; and we fancy the vessel, too, as if it were indeed "a thing of life," turning its prow back to its native land, as though somewhere in the midst of that gigantic machinery beat a human, homesick heart that longed to revel in the glory of our bluer waters and freer air; and that the soul of the inanimate leviathan laughed for joy as it kissed in farewell the snowy foam that parted and sped before it. All went well through the day, and the sun rolled slowly down the western sky, hanging like a god above the ocean, as if reluctant to lose sight of an enterprise that was big with the hope of two continents, then sank into the arms of waves that rose up at his coming and met him with crimson blushes:

> The dusk grew deeper as crept the night
> With dewy eyes to the lap of day.

And the stars came out and gemmed the lofty arch above, and were reflected back from the apparently deeper and bluer arch beneath. It is said that not a man slept on those vessels that first night at sea—that not one retired or closed his eyes for a moment. Strange thoughts came to them as they swept on their way, look-

ing with a sort of fascination at the long, sinuous, serpent-like cable as it glided out into the darkness and buried itself in the bosom of the fathomless waters that were henceforth to be its living tomb. All passed on well until two hundred miles were made, and suddenly the electric current was lost. They were struck with dumb amazement and astonishment, but no one on board could explain or remedy it. This lasted for two hours, when strangely, silently and mysteriously as it went, it returned, and men and officers rejoiced alike, and passed from one to another, shaking hands in their joy as they assured each other that it was "all right." But that night a far greater calamity befell them—the cable parted in mid-ocean, and through the whole fleet the deepest grief was felt; they sorrowed together like one bereaved household. The fleet at once returned to England, where the stockholders made arrangements for the manufacture of seven hundred miles of cable, to replace that which was lost. Mr. Field believed that the disaster was owing to the imperfect machine used in paying out the cable, and Mr. Wm. E. Everett, chief engineer of the Niagara, undertook, while waiting for the new cable, to invent something better adapted to the work, and succeeded to the entire satisfaction of the Company. The brakes used were the invention of Mr. Appold, of London, and the whole machine, when completed, was a combination of American and English skill. In everything pertaining to the work of laying the cable, the two nations worked together without a vestige of any national jealousy, neither seeming to care to which the credit was given.

In January, 1858, Mr. Field, at the urgent request of the Board of Directors, accepted the position of general manager, and though a salary of $5000 per annum was offered, he declined all compensation. In March, of that year, the cable was in readiness for the second attempt at laying; the Niagara sailed from New York, and Mr. Field learned at the last moment that the "Susquehanna" was at the West Indies, in quarantine, her crew, almost to a man, being prostrated with yellow fever. Everything had been planned with the expectation of again having this vessel to assist; the disappointment was intense, and deepened by the fact that it was impossible at this late day to supply the deficiency at home, chiefly owing to the strong power which had worked against the enterprise

from the first; he knew it was useless to appeal to our own government. In this dilemma, either horn of which it seemed hopeless to seize, he laid the matter before the Lords of the Admiralty, of England, and asked for a vessel to accompany the Niagara. The British Government was at that moment making strenuous efforts to charter ships sufficient to transport troops to Malta, and it seemed impossible for it to contribute a third vessel that was suitable for the service, but the same day it sent the "Valorous" to act as consort to the Niagara. This assistance, so unhesitatingly given, was most generous and timely, and especially so as England was in sore need of all her own boats. The fleet immediately sailed for the Bay of Biscay with Mr. Field at the head of the expedition. It is impossible to give any idea of the weight of care and responsibility which burdened him at this time, or the amount of work he performed. He had but little rest, frequently not having an entire night's sleep in a week, often traveling day and night, snatching an hour or two of repose in the carriage while on the road. On the 10th of June the fleet sailed, but at two hundred miles from shore the cable again parted, and again it lay, a dead and useless weight on its ocean bed. The directors were disheartened by this second failure, and opposed to investing any more funds in what the world, and especially the American side of it, sneeringly, though wittily, styled the "sinking fund," and only Mr. Field's utmost powers of persuasion prevented them from totally abandoning it. Obtaining consent to make a third trial, he immediately commenced work again, and this time the cable was laid successfully, with no accident or hindrance; but it was in another sense a failure, since it never worked perfectly, and soon ceased altogether to transmit messages. The discouragement, to every one but Mr. Field, was heart-sickening, and so general was it, too, that he saw it was hopeless to attempt to raise more money by private subscription, and that if more was done it must be by the government entirely. America had ever been a reluctant contributor, little was to be hoped there—and England had lost heavily by the failure of the Red Sea cable, yet she nobly stepped forward and increased the subsidy already guaranteed from fourteen to twenty thousand pounds per annum. For two years Mr. Field labored unremittingly to organize another company, but with little prospect of success, and it was not until the

war broke out in America that, seeing the necessity for more direct and rapid communication with Europe than we now possessed he received the hearty approval of the President, and the assurance that the government would cordially unite with England to second any efforts made by them, and aid in every possible way. A few gentlemen organized a company and purchased the "Great Eastern," which having proven unfit for the purpose for which it was built, was advertised for sale, fitted it up and offered it for the work of laying the cable. On the 23d of July the cable was attached to the shore, and the fourth attempt made to lay it, and with a hope of success, but twelve hundred miles from shore it broke, and fell with a sullen plash to the bottom of the ocean. For nine days they used every endeavor to grasp it, but in vain, for though repeatedly caught, the rope broke every time, and the precious burden sank back to its bed, two miles below the surface of the ocean. The spot was marked by buoys, and the ship returned to England.

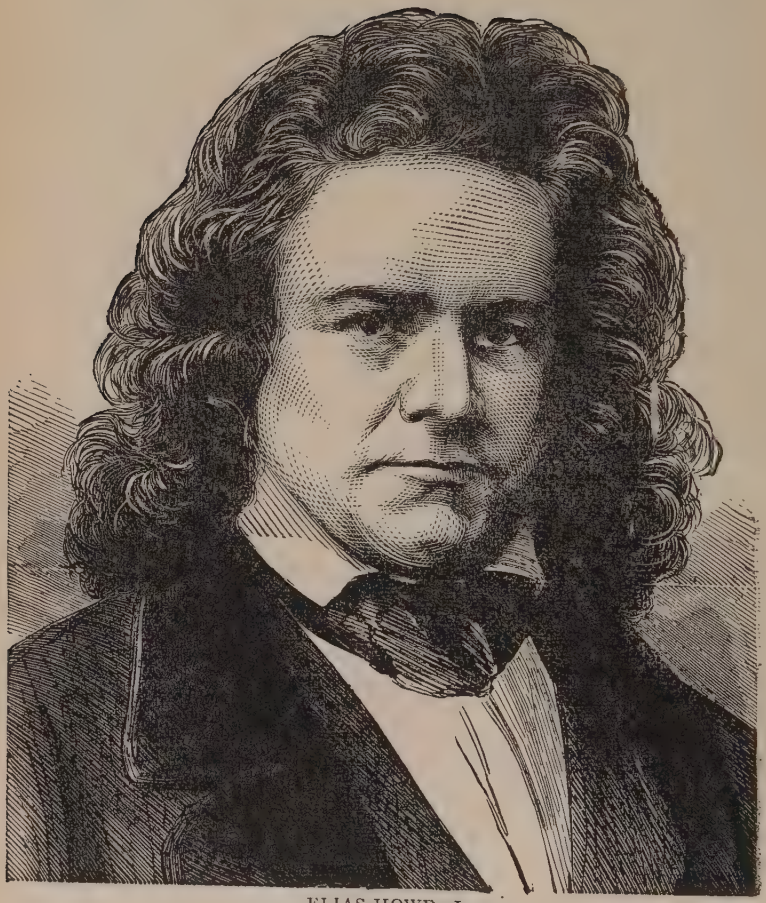
A new company was organized the next year, under the name of the Anglo-American Telegraph Company, with a capital of six hundred thousand pounds, and orders were at once given for the manufacture of as much cable as had been lost. On the seventh of July the Great Eastern arrived at Valentia, and the fifth time the cable was fastened to the land, and the mighty ship, with the entire telegraph fleet for consorts, sailed for Newfoundland. The voyage was made in fourteen days, wind and weather favoring the expedition, whose progress was known in England from day to day, while America was in uncertainty. A faithful few had gathered at Heart's Content to witness the arrival, but the boisterously enthusiastic crowd who gathered to welcome it a year ago, shrugged their shoulders in contemptuous and scornful unbelief, and stayed at home. The boat was hourly expected, and Friday morning the eager watchers rose early and looked out over the waters that were yet gray with the misty garments of night. Far, far away the form of a vessel was seen, as if outlined with daintiest pencilings against the roseate sky. Another, another, and yet another, sailed slowly up, then the hull of the "Great Eastern" heaves in sight. The "Albany" entered the harbor first, then the "Terrible," then the "Medway," and at last the "Great Eastern" glided slowly and majestically in and dropped its

anchors with no more ado than if she had come over in the usual way, laden with the commonest merchandise. The cable across the St. Lawrence was broken, and it was two days more before the news reached New York; but on the Sabbath morning of July 29th, the tidings came in the few brief words that told their own story, and were also characteristic of the great man who had mainly been instrumental in accomplishing the great work:

"HEART'S CONTENT, July 27th.—We arrived here at nine o'clock this morning. All is well. *Thank God!* the cable is laid and in perfect working order.

"CYRUS W. FIELD."

The weary man rested here at this place, whose very name was sweetly laden with suggestions for him in that moment of supreme victory. Twelve long years his energy and perseverance had kept the subject before the people of two worlds—twelve long years his hands had wrought and his brain had toiled to accomplish it. Twelve years his unremitting industry and unbroken faith had been the theme of jest and sneer for the selfish and ignorant, and at last—at last—beat high, noble heart!—at last it is accomplished, and the very waves of the ocean raised their voices and sang anthems of rejoicing as they caressed with their foam-white hands, first the shores of the old world and then the new, while they cradled in their heart the perfected fruit of his patient endeavor.



ELIAS HOWE, Jr.

JAMES WATTS.

JAMES WATTS was born at Greenock, Scotland, on the 19th of January, 1736. His father was a merchant, and also one of the magistrates of that town. He received the rudiments of his education in his native place; but his health being even then extremely delicate, as it continued to be to the end of his life, his attendance at school was not always very regular. He amply made up, however, for what he lost in this way, by the diligence with which he pursued his studies at home, where, without assistance, he succeeded, at a very early age, in making considerable proficiency in various branches of knowledge. Even at this time, his favorite study is said to have been mechanical science. At the age of eighteen, he was sent to London to be apprenticed to a maker of mathematical instruments. A year or two after this, a visit which he paid to some relatives in Glasgow suggested to him the plan of attempting to establish himself there in that business. In 1757, he removed thither, and was immediately appointed Mathematical Instrument Maker to the college.

Honorable as this appointment was, he probably did not find it a very lucrative one; and, therefore, in 1763, when about to marry, he removed from his apartments in the University to a house in the city, and entered upon the profession of general Engineer. For this his genius and scientific attainments admirably qualified him. But another pursuit was destined, ere long, to divert him from this line of exertion, and to occupy his whole mind in efforts still more worthy of its extraordinary powers.

In the winter of 1763-4, a small model of Newcomen's engine, was sent to him by the Professor of Natural Philosophy, to be repaired and fitted for exhibition in the class. The examination of this model set Watt thinking anew, and with more interest than ever, on the powers of steam. Struck with the radical imperfections of the Atmospheric Engine, he engaged in a course of experiments for ascertaining the properties of steam, and was rewarded with several valuable discoveries. The rapidity with which water evaporates, he found, for instance, depended simply upon the quantity of heat which was made to enter it, and this again on the extent of the surface exposed to the fire. He also

ascertained the quantity of coal necessary for the evaporation of any given quantity of water, the heat at which water boils under various pressures, and many other particulars of a similar kind, which had never before been accurately determined. In the best of Newcomen's Engines, the perfection of the vacuum was thus so greatly impaired that the resistance to the piston, in its descent, amounted to about a fourth part of the whole atmospheric pressure by which it was carried down, or, in other words, the working power of the machine was thereby diminished one-fourth.

After reflecting upon all this, it at last occurred to Watt that it might be possible to condense steam in some other vessel than the cylinder. This fortunate idea having presented itself, it was not long before the *means* for realizing it were also suggested. The plan which he devised was a simple one, therefore the more beautiful. He connected the cylinder and another vessel by an open pipe, so that, when the steam was admitted into the former, it flowed into the latter, and filled it, also; this latter vessel only being subject to a condensing process, by contact with cold water, a vacuum was produced, and into that, as a vent, more steam would immediately rush from the cylinder, which would likewise be condensed, and so the process would go on until the steam had left the cylinder, and a perfect vacuum had been effected in that vessel, without so much as a drop of cold water having touched or entered it. The separate vessel alone, or the condenser, as Watt called it, was cooled by the water condensing the steam, and instead of being an evil, manifestly promoted and quickened the condensation. When Watt reduced these views to the test of an experiment, he found the result to answer his most sanguine expectations. The cylinder, although emptied of its steam for every stroke of the piston, as before, was now constantly kept at the same temperature with the steam, (or 212 degrees Farenheit,) and the consequence was, that one-fourth of the fuel formerly required sufficed to feed an engine. But besides the saving of expense in maintaining an engine, its power was greatly increased by the more perfect vacuum; the condensing water could not, as before, create new steam while displacing the old.

Thus, by the genius of this great inventor, was the serious defect of the old apparatus remedied.

While yet residing in the college, his attention had been directed to the employment of steam as a mechanical agent, and the practicability of applying this power to the movement of steam carriages. He had also made some experiments with Papin's digester, to ascertain the expansive force of steam.

It is gratifying to reflect that even while he was yet alive, Watt received from the voice of the most illustrious of his contemporaries, the honors due to his genius. In 1785, he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society; the degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred upon him by the University of Glasgow, in 1806; and in 1808, he was elected a member of the French Institute. He died, August 25th, 1819, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

JOHN FITCH.

BY THE power of steam, rapid, comfortable, and cheap transit has been attained, and enjoyed for half a century, by the nations of Europe, and more especially by our own people. In traversing the ocean, and to a greater extent upon our own great inland seas, and in threading the great rivers of our central valley, America has reaped the benefits conferred by steam navigation. In the year 1817, the original patents, drafts, specifications, and models of Fitch and Fulton, were exhibited before a committee of the New York Legislature, raised upon the petition of Governor Ogden, of New Jersey. Many witnesses were examined, and among them men of the highest character, and the arguments of able council were heard. After much deliberation, this committee reported to the legislature, and in the document submitted are the following expressions: "The steamboats built by Livingston and Fulton were in substance the invention patented to John Fitch, in 1791, and Fitch, during the term of his patent (fourteen years), had the exclusive right to use the same in the United States."

John Fitch was born January 21st, 1743, at the paternal homestead, in the township of Windsor, Hartford County, Connecticut.

The father was not inclined to liberality, but was a rigid and stern man, who, as his son says, "always had plenty of victuals in the house." John began his attendance at school when quite young, and, when nine years old, had mastered the "fundamental rules" of arithmetic. His father instructed him in surveying to the extent of his own information.

At the age of seventeen, becoming weary with farm labor, he started for Rocky Hill, on the Connecticut River, on an agreement to make one voyage to New York, in a vessel under the command of Capt. Abbot; but, experiencing rough treatment at the hands of the mate, he quit the craft before leaving port, and engaged on another vessel, in which he coasted, and after five weeks returned home.

During the early part of 1785, Fitch seems to have been suffering from rheumatism, and while making slow progress walking with a friend in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, an acquaintance passed them at a rapid pace, in a two-wheeled vehicle, then known as "a chair." The speed of the horse, brought up in conversation some speculations which he had no doubt previously entertained respecting the feasibility of propelling carriages by steam. The rough condition of the roads, and the apparently greater benefits to be derived by applying the power to vessels, soon turned his thoughts to "a steamboat." These facts were certified to in 1788, by James Scout, to whom Fitch submitted his plan of a boat in May or June, 1785; and also by James Ogilbee, the friend with whom he was walking when the thought of steam power was first spoken of. Watson's Annals of Philadelphia gives some facts furnished by Daniel Longstreth, whose father was the friend and associate of Fitch. He says: "It was in Cobe Scout's log shop that Fitch made his model steam-boat, with paddle-wheels, as they are now used."

Fearing that his invention would be supplanted in some way by the efforts of a rival interest patronized by Dr. Franklin, he memorialised the Legislature of Pennsylvania for an exclusive right to propel vessels "by fire and steam," in the waters of that State. This was dated March 11, and on the next day a similar memorial was presented by one Donaldson, who "had hit upon or been informed of the method of sucking in and voiding water through a tube," as suggested to the Philosophical Society by Dr. Franklin.

Without waiting further, Fitch left for Trenton, where he obtained from the Legislature of New Jersey, an act bearing date March 18, 1786, which secured to him for fourteen years "the sole and exclusive right of constructing, making, using, and employing, or navigating all and every species or kind of boats or water craft which might be urged or impelled by the force of fire or steam, in all the creeks, rivers, etc., within the territory or jurisdiction of this State."

Within a month following, Fitch had organized a company, with the number of shares fixed at forty, on many of which twenty dollars each were collected. There were, at this time, but three steam-engines in the whole country.

In a letter to Stacy Potts, of Trenton, Fitch says: (July 28, '86,) "I completed my experiments yesterday, and find that they exceed my most sanguine expectations. * * We shall not come short of ten miles per hour." We find him saying of the model also: "It fully convinced me that the steam-engine might be worked *both ways* as well as one."

"The United States Gazette" of May 17th contained a notice, dated Burlington, May 11th, in these words: "The friends of science and the liberal arts will be gratified in hearing that we were favored, on Sunday last, with a visit from the ingenious Mr. Fitch, accompanied by several gentlemen of taste and knowledge in mechanics, in a steamboat constructed on an improved plan. From these gentlemen we learn that they came from Philadelphia in three hours and a quarter, with a head-wind, the tide in their favor. On their return, by accurate observations, they proceeded down the river at the rate of upwards of seven miles an hour."

Averaging the trips made at twenty-five miles each, this,

THE FIRST PASSENGER STEAM-BOAT,

must have run, before she was laid up, between *two and three thousand miles*. The boat is said to have "run five hundred miles," without the least accident occurring.

Gen. Joseph Bloomfield, of New Jersey, testified before a committee of the New York Legislature, in 1814, that he had frequently been a passenger on Fitch's boat on the Delaware. Dr. Thornton, Fitch's former associate, stated that "our boat (Fitch's) went at the rate of *eight* miles an hour, in the presence of witnesses yet (1814) living."

After Fitch had spent two years with his sister and brother-in-law, King, at East Windsor, Connecticut, he seems to have determined to seek his lands in Kentucky, and perhaps in passing through New York, called upon, or was brought into contact with Robert R. (Chancellor) Livingston, who even then was greatly interested in steam navigation. A Mr. John Hutchings, mentioned in the Documentary History of New York, says that in the summer of 1796 or 1797, he, then a lad, assisted Mr. Fitch in steering a steam-boat, and otherwise aiding in the working of the machinery.

No one can reasonably question that Fitch's steam-boats were the first vessels successfully propelled by steam.

Amid all his misfortunes there is much to indicate that he was truthful, fair-minded, and upright in his intercourse with men. His letters to his children manifest much warmth of affection Perhaps we do not err in saying that his sensitive nature received a bias from the events which followed the death of his mother, before he was five years of age, from which his later training and experiences in no degree relieved him. He passed from the scenes of earth at the age of fifty-five, in the midst of comparative strangers, and among those who, under the circumstances, could have but little sympathy for him.

FRENCH AND SHREVE

WERE leading names in early steamboat navigation on the Ohio. Two years prior to the date of Fulton's patent, in 1811, Daniel French, of New York, obtained a patent for a steamboat and engine, October 12th, 1809.

In the year 1787, while the Revolutionary Fathers were framing the Federal Constitution at Philadelphia, John Fitch was offering them free rides in his steamer on the Delaware.

Captain Henry M. Shreve was the first that ascended the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, and he was the successful inventor and improver of Western River Steamers, and also inventor of the Snag-boat.

At the period of 1817, there had been built on the Ohio about fifteen boats, several of them under one hundred tons capacity. After the memorable success of Captain Shreve with the "Washington," all fears respecting the navigation of Western waters by steamboats seem to have vanished. Boat-yards were established at convenient points and steamboat building was active. It is difficult, at this late day, to appreciate the enthusiasm excited among "the people of the West" over the achievements of the "Washington" and her gallant captain. Dr. McMurtrie, in his sketches of Louisville, published in 1819, remarks: "Next to Fulton, the Western country owes a vast debt of gratitude to Captain Henry M. Shreve. It is to his exertions, his example, and, let me add, to his integrity and patriotic purity of principle that it is indebted for the present flourishing state of its navigation. The offer of the Livingston Company was rejected with scorn and indignation, and the affair left to justice, whose sword instantly severed the links that enchained commerce on the Western rivers." Had Shreve been weak and grasping, how different the result! How long would the great monopoly have held control of steamboats, and the prices of transportation for freight and passengers? Fulton had really almost no legitimate claim to originality in connection with the steamboat; he had, however, secured the co-operation of large capitalists, who, after quarreling with each other over the steam apparatus of Watt, John Fitch, John Stevens, and Robert R. Livingston, had finally concluded to join forces and take the country, at least the fluid portions of it, and put it in charge of their monster leviathan; but justice, under an over-ruling Providence, brought their counsels to naught, and gave to the wings of commerce *on water, the power of steam free of all constraint,* as came to be as palpably the case *on land*, a few years later, when the locomotive sprang upon the iron track, ready to move in all its ponderous power and winged fleetness, without paying tribute to patent laws, or being in the least restrained from fulfilling its destiny as fast as the laws of nature would permit. The "Washington" was not built under French's patent, as was the "Enterprise," but was built after the plans of Captain Shreve.

The "General Pike" was the first boat built in the West for the special accomodation of passengers; she was constructed, in

1818, at Cincinnati for a company of her citizens. According to the City Directory of 1820, "she measures 100 feet keel, 25 feet beam, and draws only 3 feet and 3 inches water."

By the use of Shreve's snag-boat, the great raft of the Red River, consisting of trees, logs and drift-wood of every description firmly imbedded in its channel for *more than one hundred and sixty miles, was removed*, and the navigation of that river opened, including the raft a distance of nearly twelve hundred miles. This work, alone, in consequence of the immense quantity of public land reclaimed in that region and rendered fit for cultivation, the enhanced value of other lands on the upper part of the river, and the reduced cost in the transportation of supplies to Fort Towson and to the Indians located in that neighborhood, has been worth millions to the Government. Eighty-five thousand dollars was the saving in one season on freight alone. The cost of removing those obstructions was but about $300,000, instead of $3,000,000, as had been prophecied. Such snag-boats have to be constantly removing new obstacles in all the Western rivers.

Upon the advent of John Tyler to the Presidency, after the decease of General Harrison, Captain Shreve was officially informed of his removal from office, by a letter dated at Washington, September 11th, 1841. After thirty-four years literally spent on the waters, he returned to the quiet pursuits of an agricultural life, in which he was engaged in youth. His farm was near St. Louis, and with the same zeal and liberality which he had always manifested, he devoted himself energetically to improving his landed estate.

At the opening of the telegraph at St. Louis, Captain Shreve sent the first message borne by electricity from the banks of the Mississippi to the tide waters of the Atlantic. It was to the President of the United States, at Washington. Thus did he fill out the measure of a career of great usefulness and brilliant endeavor. Quietly at his home, for the last ten years of his life he enjoyed the pleasures of a serene old age, and died, after a protracted illness, in his 66th year, March 6th, 1851.

RICHARD TREVITHICK

WAS born on the 13th of April, 1771, in the parish of Illogan, a few miles west of Redruth, in Cornwall. He may be fairly regarded as THE INVENTOR OF THE RAILWAY LOCOMOTIVE, if any single individual be entitled to that appellation. He was a person of extraordinary mechanical skill, but of marvelous ill fortune, who, though the inventor of many ingenious contrivances, and the founder of fortunes of many, himself died in extreme poverty, leaving behind him nothing but his great inventions and the recollection of his genius.

He early entertained the idea of making the expansive force of steam act directly on both sides of the piston, on the high-pressure principle, and thus getting rid of Watt's process of condensation. Although Cugnot had employed high-pressure steam in his road locomotive, and Murdock in his model, and although Watt had distinctly specified the action of steam at high-pressure as well as low, in his patents, the idea was not embodied in any practical working engine until taken in hand by Trevithick. The results of his long study were embodied in the patent which he took out in 1802, in his own and Vivian's name, for an improved steam-engine, and "the application thereof for driving carriages and other purposes."

The arrangement of Trevithick's engine was ingenious. It exhibited a beautiful simplicity of parts; the machinery was arranged effectively, uniting strength with solidity and portability, and enabling steam to be employed with very great rapidity, economy, and force.

Trevithick's steam carriage was the most compact and handsome yet invented, and, as regards arrangement, has scarcely to this day been surpassed. It consisted of a carriage capable of accommodating some half dozen passengers. Underneath the engine and machinery was inclosed, in about the size of an orchestra drum, the whole being supported on four wheels—two in front, by which it was guided, and two behind, by which it was driven. The engine had but one cylinder. The piston-rod outside the cylinder was double, and drove a cross-piece, working in guides, on the opposite side of the cranked axle to the cylinder, the crank

of the axle revolving between the double parts of the piston-rod. Toothed wheels were attached to this axle, which worked into other toothed wheels fixed on the axle of the driving-wheels. The steam-cocks were opened and shut by a connection with the crank-axle; and the force-pump, with which the boiler was supplied with water, was also worked from it, as were the bellows to blow the fire and thereby keep up the combustion in the furnace.

The first railway locomotive was finished and tried upon the Merthyr train-road, on the 21st of February, 1804. As a locomotive, it was a remarkable success. The pressure of the steam was about 40 lbs. on the inch. The engine ran upon four wheels, coupled by cog-wheels, and the four wheels were smooth.

On the first trial, this engine drew, for a distance of nine miles, ten tons of bar iron, together with the necessary carriages, water, and fuel, at the rate of five and a half miles an hour.

Trevithick, in a great measure, solved the problem of steam locomotion on railways. He had produced a compact engine, working on the high-pressure principle, capable of carrying fuel and water sufficient for a journey of considerable length, and of drawing loaded wagons at five and a half miles an hour. He had shown by his smooth wheeled locomotive that the weight had given sufficient adhesion for hauling the load. He had discharged the steam into the chimney, though not for the purpose of increasing the draught, as he employed bellows for that purpose.

There can be no doubt as to the great mechanical ability of Trevithick. He was a man of original and intuetive genius in invention. Every mechanical arrangement which he undertook to study issued from his hands transformed and improved. But there he rested. He struck out many inventions, and left them to take care of themselves. His great failing was the want of perseverance.

Trevithick made the first railway locomotive, and cast the invention aside, leaving it to others to take it up and prosecute it to a successful issue. He introduced, if he did not invent, the cylindrical boiler and the high-pressure engine, which increased so enormously the steam power of the world; but he reaped the profits of neither. He invented an oscillating engine and a screw propeller; he took out a patent for using superheated steam, as well as for wrought iron ships and wrought iron floating docks; but

he left it to other men to introduce these several inventions.

Never was there such a series of splendid mechanical beginnings. He began a Thames Tunnel, and abandoned it. He went to South America with the prospect of making a gigantic fortune, but he had scarcely begun to gather in his gold than he was forced to fly, and returned home destitute. But even when he had the best chances, Trevithick threw them away.

There may have been some moral twist in the engineer's character, into which we do not seek to pry; but it seems clear that he was wanting in that resolute perseverance, that power of fighting an up-hill battle, without which no great enterprise can be conducted to a successful issue.

The character of Richard Trevithick presents a remarkable contrast to that of George Stephenson, who took up only one of the many projects which the other had cast aside, and by dint of application, industry, and perseverance, carried into effect one of the most remarkable, but peaceful revolutions which has ever been accomplished in any age or country.

During the last year of his life, Trevithick resided at Dartford, in Kent. He was entirely without means at his death, being some sixty pounds in debt to the landlord of the Bull Inn, where he had lodged for nearly a year.

ALFRED VAIL.

IN THE month of September, 1807, there was born into the family of a sturdy machinist, a son, who in process of time came to be given the name of Alfred Vail.

Stephen Vale was the first man in New Jersey to set up a machine for making cut nails, which he started at Dover in his native county. He early married a young lady of excellent sense and of great amiability and nobleness of character, who manifested the best qualities of a true housewife and an earnest Christian mother. Mrs. Vail had several children; the eldest was a daughter, Harriet, and the second a son, Alfred, the subject of our sketch.

Alfred Vail passed his early life at the home of his parents and amid influences which were likely to engender and foster mechanical tastes. His youth until his seventeenth year was spent in attending school in Morris Academy. When young Vail had left school, his tastes and the tendencies of his surroundings led him at once into the business of his father—the manufacture of steam engines and other machinery manufactured of iron and brass. He was much in the brass foundry, and at an early age became noted for his skill. With great fondness for study, especially in the mechanic arts and sciences, he had frequent longings for more thorough attainments. He had, however, become a citizen of full age before he broke away from his moorings, and began his preparations for college. With great zeal and energy he pursued his studies at the academy in Bloomfield, Essex County, until duly prepared he entered the New York City University in 1832, probably at precisely the period of Professor Morse's return from Europe in the packet ship "Sully." Vail graduated in due course in 1836, with decided honor, and with such recognition from the faculty as led to an early offer of a professorship in the institution.

Through Professor Morse, Mr. Vail became *interested*, and finally *absorbed*, in improving the telegraph. He had at least as soon as the earlier part of September, 1837, entered with Professor Morse upon a series of experiments at Speedwell with the rude machine of Morse's own construction. When he had by working with Professor Morse satisfied himself as to the capacities of his system and machine, Mr. Vail, with his accustomed patience and the concentration of his fine natural and acquired abilities for nvention, gave himself up to the work of improving on Professor Morse's machine. Mr. Vail's machine was exhibited at Washington, by Professor Morse, who, after failing to accomplish anything practically beneficial, left for Europe under the patronage of his friends at Speedwell. Professor Morse, in his first letter to Alfred Vail, from Europe, writes:

"PARIS, October 11, 1838.

"I exhibited the telegraph to the Institute, and the sensation produced was as striking as at Washington. It was evident that hitherto the assembled science of Europe had considered the plan of an electric telegraph as ingenious but visionary, and like æronautic navigation, practicable in little more than

theory and destined to be useless. Icannot describe to you the scene at the Institute when your box with the registering machine, just as it left Speedwell, was placed upon the table, and surrounded by the most distinguished men of all Europe, celebrated in the various arts and sciences—Arago, Baron Humboldt, Guy Lassac, and a host of others whose names are stars that shine in both hemispheres. Arago described it to them, and I showed its action. A buzz of admiration and approbation filled the whole hall, and the exclamations '*extraordinaire*,' '*tres bien*,' '*tres admirable*,' I heard on all sides. The sentiment was universal."

Here we insert the text of the original fac-simile certificate as it was found, excepting the erasures made by Mr. Vail, and the word *combination* given in italics, which was undoubtedly the word used, but it was torn off when first discovered by Mr. Vail's family:

"This lever and roller were invented by me in the 6th story of the *New York Observer* office, in 1844, before we put up the telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore, and this *combination* has been always used in Morse's instrument. I am the sole and only inventor of this mode of telegraph embossed writing. Professor Morse gave me no clue to it, or did any one else, and I have not asserted publicly my right as first and sole inventor, because I wish to preserve the peaceful unity of the invention, and, because, I could not, according to my contract with Professor Morse, have got a patent for it.

(Signed) "ALFRED VAIL."

Mr. Vail proposed and draughted his plan of printing instrument. The complicated machinery necessary to produce the result, which seemed more curious than useful, and its slowness of operation, compared with the Morse-(Vail) instrument, were obstacles to its practical application. It was never practically tested.

Mr. Vail's thorough scientific and mechanical knowledge of all that pertained to the telegraph, and his deep interest in its success, made him a valuable counsellor in the new projects which frequently came up for consideration during those early years in which Mr. Kendall was effectively urging forward the schemes for erecting new lines, then being set on foot in all directions.

Alfred Vail deceased on the 18th of January, 1859, in his fifty-second year, at his residence on South street, Morristown, N. J.

SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT.

RICHARD ARKWRIGHT, was born at Preston, in Lancashire, England, on the 23rd of December, 1732.

Arkwright, from a very humble origin, rose to affluence and distinction by his perseverance in improving and perfecting machinery adapted to the cotton manufacture. Whitney had, by the invention of the Cotton-Gin, made the production of Cotton profitable, at a comparatively low price; and the combination resulted in the development of the great manufacturing interests of Britain and the United States.

The parents of Arkwright were very poor; and he was the youngest of a family of thirteen children. The education he received was extremely limited, if indeed he was ever at school at all. The profession to which he was bred was that of a barber. He followed this business until nearly thirty years of age, and during this early period his history is hidden and obscure enough.

About the year 1760, however, or soon after, he quit shaving, and commenced business as an itinerant hair-dealer, collecting the commodity by travelling up and down the country.

It would appear that his first effort in mechanics was an attempt to discover the perpetual motion. It was on inquiring after a person to make him some wheels for a project of this kind that, in the latter part of the year 1767, he got acquainted with a clock-maker of the name of Kay, then residing at Warrington, with whom it is certain that he was, for a considerable time after, closely connected. From this moment we may date his entrance upon a new career.

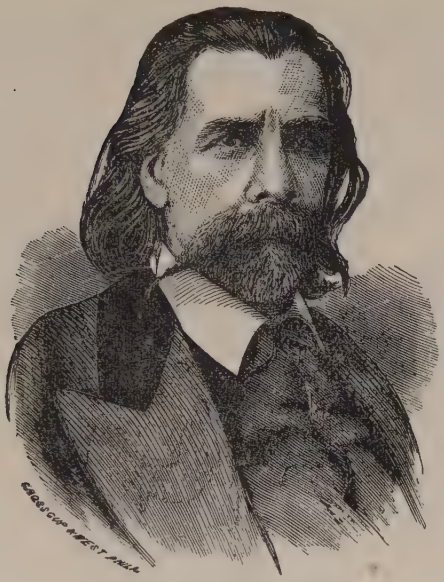
In the year 1767, Arkwright became acquainted with Kay. In 1768, the two friends appeared together at Preston, and immmediately began to occupy themselves busily in the erection of a machine for spinning cotton thread, of which they had brought a model with them. They prevailed upon a Mr. Smalley, who is described to have been a liquor merchant and painter of that place, to join them in their speculation; and the room in which the machine was fixed was the parlor of a dwelling house attached to a free grammar-school, which Smalley obtained from his friend, the school-master. At this time Arkwright was so poor that, an

election contest having taken place in the town of which he was a burgess, it is asserted that his friends, or party, were obliged to subscribe to get him a decent suit of clothes before they could bring him into the poll-room. As soon as the election was over, he and Kay left Preston, and, carrying with them their model, betook themselves to Nottingham, the apprehension of the hostility of the people of Lancashire to the attempt he was making to introduce spinning by machinery, having, as Arkwright himself afterward stated, induced him to take this step. On arriving at Nottingham, he first made arrangements with the Messrs. Wright, bankers, for making the necessary supply of capital; but they, after a short time, having declined to continue their advances, he took his model to Messrs. Need & Strutt, stocking-weavers of the place, the latter of whom was a particularly ingenious man, and well qualified, from scientific acquirements of which he had possessed himself under many disadvantages, to judge of the adaptation of the new machinery to its proposed object. An inspection of it perfectly satisfied him of its great value; and he and Mr. Need immediately agreed to enter into partnership with Arkwright, who, in 1769, took out a patent for the machine as its inventor. A Spinning Mill driven by horse-power, was at the same time erected, and filled with the frames; being, unless we include those erected many years before by Mr. Wyatt, the first works of the kind that had been known in England. In 1771, Arkwright and his partners established another Mill at Cromford, in the parish of Wirksworth, in Derbyshire, the machinery of which was set in motion by a water-wheel, and in 1775 he took out a second patent, on additions which he had made to his original apparatus.

After he had succeeded in forming his partnership with Messrs. Need & Strutt, his success was far from being secured. For a long time the speculation was a hazardous and unprofitable one, and no little outlay was required to carry it on. He tells us himself that in his case it did not begin to pay till it had been persevered in for five years, and had swallowed up a capital of more than twelve thousand pounds. We can not doubt that it required all Arkwright's dexterity and firmness to induce his partners to persevere with the experiment under this large expenditure and protracted disappointment. But it was the character of the man to devote his whole heart and faculties to whatever he was engaged

in. Even to the close of his life, the management of his extended manufacturing operations was his only occupation, and even amusement. Although he had been from early life afflicted with severe asthma, he took scarcely any recreation, employing all of his time either in superintending the daily concerns of these establishments, which were regulated upon a plan that itself indicated in its contriver no little ingenuity and reach of mind, or in adding such improvements to his machinery from time to time as his experience and observation suggested. And thus it was that he raised himself from a poor barber to what he eventually became—not merely a man of rank and affluence, but the founder of a new branch of National industry, destined in a wonderfully short space of time, to assume the very first place among the manufacturers of his own country and America.

Mr. Arkwright died at the age of sixty, in 1792, from the result of a complication of disorders arising from a sedentary life. At the time of his death his wealth amounted to one-half million sterling.



JOSH BILLINGS.

MANY of our American humorists have as many readers as Henry W. Shaw, so well known under his pen name of "Josh Billings"; none of them have, however, so wide and varied an audience. Old and young are alike pleased at his amusing oddities, quaint sayings, and natural kindly humor.

His life seems to have been remarkable in no respect except in the rapidity with which he made and the ability with which he has kept his reputation as a humorist. It is not likely that a biography of "Josh Billings" would prove more interesting than that of most people. It is in his writings alone that matter for interest is to be found. As an author he seems destined to obtain as much celebrity for the wealth of his humor and the versatility of its expression, as for its charming quality. He has already published four books, all of which have been successful, besides his well-known "Farmer's Almanax," of which enough were sold at 25 cents each to bring the author a small fortune.

Like many other authors, he has entered the lecture field, where he has also achieved success. He never fails to obtain full houses, and is received everywhere with applause.

The genius of "Billings" is to be seen rather in his quaint and original manner of saying things, his "cute" combinations, strange juxtapositions, and the peculiar power he possesses of presenting high moral truths, so that they may be brought, full of life and humor, to the comprehension of the most practical minds, than in the giving of new or original matter. He might be called an artist rather than a writer; or to express it differently, a *literateur* in whom the artistic sense predominates. There may, indeed, be originality in matter as well as in manner in "Josh Billings'" writings—the humor which grows out of his comparisons and combinations being certainly original—but most of his seem to be drawn from the wise old moral laws of our ancestors, united to the odd and practical phraseology of certain classes.

However this may be, "Josh Billings" is always heard and read with delight, and we have pleasure in presenting his portrait as being that of one of America's greatest humorists.

DEAN SWIFT.

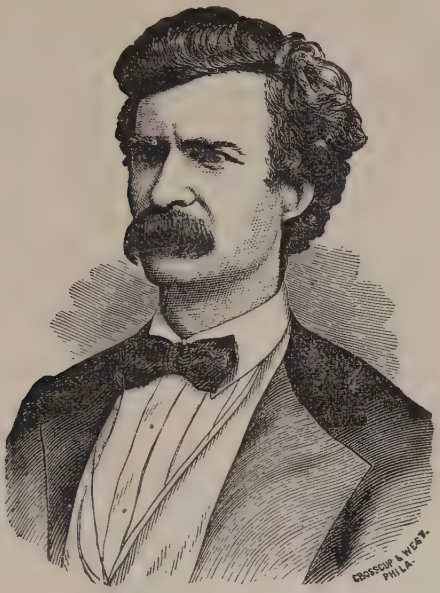
DEAN SWIFT was born in Dublin, in 1667, and was educated at Hiekenny, and Dublin University. He is said to have been a careless student, reading human nature more than books, and already a keen satirist. Until he was over forty years of age, he was a Whig; then for a short time he supported the Tories; afterwards, until he was seventy he paid no attention to politics except as it could be used as a means of bettering the condition of Ireland. When he reached his majority

he emigrated to England. He became a member of the family of Sir William Temple, a relative of his, and during his stay there studied, and acted as secretary to his patron. He wrote Pindaric odes, which, says a critic, were poor enough to merit Dryden's opinion, "Cousin Swift, you will never be a poet." His poem, however, was not quite thrown away, but prepared his mind for the production of those later comedies in which satire is often half buried, or loses its power to harm, in comic wit. Having become dissatisfied with his patron, he crossed to Ireland, took orders, and accepted a situation as country pastor, on an endowment of a hundred pounds a year. Whether he only intended at the first to frighten his friends, or whether he discovered that he had made a mistake and chose a life and vocation for which he was unsuited, we know not, but are certain it is that receiving an invitation to the Temple in less than twelve months, he obtained a transfer of his living to a poorer man than himself, and returned to Moor Park, a wiser and perhaps better man. At this time, Swift was unmarried and a most arrant flirt, and even while in Ireland, engaged in ministerial duties, found time to practice enough to keep his hand in two or three games, which he was playing secretly.

During his second stay at Moor Park he wrote "The Battle of the Books," and "Tale of a Tub." His first works are his best,—strong, fresh, vigorous, not so well calculated to please, perhaps, as later writings, since not so polished. His satirical romances are called his masterpiece, and for the terrible invectives, for the masterly skill with which he uses the cutting lash of irony, no doubt they are. The same characteristics which marked his writings marked his conversation. He was brilliant, witty, fearless, and cruel, never failing to throw back a sharp retort at the right time.

On Sir William Temple's death Swift returned to Ireland with Lord Berkeley, and when his patron received his recall the next year, Swift was left in possession of an annual living of four hundred pounds. He now published the two first books written, but though popular with the people, they were unpopular with the clergy, and were used as a means to so prejudice Queen Anne against him that his friends found it impossible to obtain a living for him in England, as they would gladly have done since

he preferred that country. Provoked by this state of affairs, Swift now made matters worse by his "Project for the advancement of Religion," and a work entitled "An Argument to prove that the Abolishing of Christianity in England may, as things now stand, be attended with some Inconvenience." Heretofore Swift had been a Whig, and a most zealous high churchman; but his party wounded his heart by their neglect of Ireland, and his self-love by refusing to make him a bishop; so when the Tories came into power, he unhesitatingly went over to their ranks. It was in their interests that he wrote "The Examiner," followed by "The Conduct of the Allies;" and his "History of the four last years of the Queen," was a defense of the treaty of Utrecht. In 1713 his friends obtained for him the deanery of St. Patrick's Cathedral, in Dublin, which really amounted to banishment from England for meddling with politics. What hint accompanied the living is not known, but Swift never after took any part in politics. During all these years Swift had kept up a most contemptible flirtation with two ladies,—one "Stella," daughter of Sir William Temple's steward, the other an Irish lady who was the "Vanessa" of his poems. Upon his return to Dublin, Stella followed him, and her frightful temper and jealousy caused stormy scenes, to appease which Swift married her secretly, and in so doing, capped the climax of their misery. Vanessa, having heard or seen something which roused her suspicions, wrote to Stella, and she handed the letter to Swift, who, in a towering passion, called upon Vanessa, threw the letter on her table, and left her without a word. The shock killed both his victims and they were buried within a few days of each other. "Gulliver's Travels," and "Brobdignag" are specimens of his light literature at this period. In his sixty-eighth year he wrote the "Legion Club," one of his best rhymed pieces. About this time his health began to give way, and gradually declined. His death, in October 1745, was preceded by three years of total idiocy.



MARK TWAIN.

SAMUEL LANGHORNE CLEMENS, so well known to the English-speaking world as Mark Twain, was born in the town of Florida, Monroe County, Missouri, in the year 1835. He appears to have possessed, from early youth, that irresistible desire to write which has brought out and developed so many of our most talented men, while it has lured weaker minds to their ruin. Mark Twain commenced as a modest contributor to the "Daily Alta," of San Francisco, and subsequently appeared as regular contributor to the "New York Tribune," "Galaxy," "Packard's" and the "New York Herald," having written for some of those journals in conjunction with his regular duties of editing and publishing.

The attention attracted by his earlier contributions appear to have decided him in the choice of a profession, for he soon connected himself as editor with the "Daily Enterprise," Virginia

City, Nevada, where he received that discipline and facility in writing which he has turned to such good account. He next entered on a wider field of enterprise, as editor and part proprietor of the "Daily Express," Buffalo, New York, a position he has since retained. It is since his connection with this paper that he has made the name of "Mark Twain" a household word, and some of the brightest small sketches he has written appeared for the first time in that journal. He has written, since 1866, several books, and published some collections of sketches, all of which have been remarkably successful, and have made the author independent of the world. "The Jumping Frog of Calaveras County, and other Sketches by John Paul," was published abroad in 1867 by Routledge, and was followed by the "Innocents Abroad," (Hartford, 1869,) both of which were surprisingly successful.

We will make no attempt to analyze the quality of his wit and humor. It owes something, doubtless, to the manner in which it is employed, and some of the humorist's strongest sketches may be suspected of a lack of originality, or at least of ingenious change or small adaptations.

Some talk was created at the time of his connection with the "Galaxy." It was thought that he did not equal his former efforts in his articles for that magazine. It is, perhaps, true, though the articles contained much that was sparkling and original. One trouble was, however, with the public—they expected too much—and had formed little idea of the difficulty of making "a few pages of wit," to be ready always at a certain day. Much shorter sketches than these presented would have been better.

Our humorist was married about two years since to an estimable lady of Buffalo, and has settled into a model *pater familias*. It is likely that he begins to think himself an old man already, which is natural enough when we consider that at the age of only thirty-six, he has made a reputation which is higher and wider than most men, even humorists, attain at sixty.

Some cynical people say that he has not said so good a thing since he made his last joke of his bachelor life. His father-in-law had secretly furnished a house for the young pair. When Mark was led into and had looked upon its splendor his single remark was, "Well, isn't this a first-class sell!"

LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN.

LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN was born at Bonn, December 16th, 1770. He was the second of four children, and exhibited, at a very early age, proofs of great musical talent. At eleven years of age he is spoken of by a competent critic, in a periodical of the time, as playing at sight all the difficult and most incomprehensible plays of Sebastian Bach. He had also, at that age, already published three sonatas for the piano, and a number of pieces for the harpsichord, of which he was master. At this period the elector died, and was succeeded by Maximillian Francis, who was passionately fond of music. His bosom friend was the young Count Waldstein, a practical musician, and familiar with the works of the best masters. The Count discovered the promise of the boy, became his protector, and had him appointed assistant court organist, and afterwards sent him to Vienna to study with Mozart, from whence he returned to take the position of chief organist. Again his kind patron returned him to Vienna at his own expense, and maintained him through five years of study and practice. He was now twenty-two years of age, handsome as an artist's dream; polished, easy, graceful, learned in the ways of the best society; with a force, fire and originality of conception and a delicate yet brilliant execution in which he had scarcely a rival—surely but one—Wolfe, who was unsurpassed on the piano. His compositions took the world by storm. Whether in heavy thunders, like the tramping of armed legions, they swept in volumes of oppressive weight through the dim old aisles of the mightiest cathedrals of Europe; or whether in whispers low and deft as those of twilight's softest breeze, they crept through nave and corridor, rising with the perfumed breath of incense burning upon holy altars, and thrilling and vibrating through the rich and dusky gloom, men listened with solemn awe, and the swift pulse wildly leaping, caught from the heart a subdued and measured beat, and women wept with mournful pleasure

that was almost pain. But the life of the young musician was already overshadowed with an impending calamity, and his soul grew sick with an unutterable dread, for the brilliant triumphs which the future offered were but mockery; since he, of all the world would soon know no more the ravishing strains his own genius created, and his masterpieces of composition would be but signs whose exquisite expression he would never hear.

He had been conscious for some time that his hearing was becoming dull; that he was gradually but surely losing it. It is needless to say he was in despair. Every means which human skill could devise had been brought to bear upon the case in vain. It was far past the help of surgery, and grim and helpless he awaited the coming of the inevitable doom. His sensitive nature shrank from the society, sympathy and fellowship of men, and when only thirty years old he retired from the company which he had adorned, and of which he was the idol, and became a recluse. Henceforth every composition of his was tinged with the melancholy that had taken possession of his spirit, and the depression was so great that he seriously meditated suicide as the only way to rid himself of an existence which had grown hateful to him. Only love for his mission stayed his hand. Only the wistful longing to give to the world the darling creation of his brain—only the memory of what he had done in the past, and the knowledge that his powers had not yet reached their prime, prevented him from closing the door of time and stepping out into the darkness of an unknown future. The pensive tone which had always marked his productions grew heavier as he advanced in years, and in some of his latest works is so strong as to possess a curious fascination.

He was all his life a republican in principle, though circumstances prevented the frequent expression of such sentiments; and the aspirations, hopes, triumphs, the grief, woe, despair of the nations were themes for his muse.

Some appreciative critic, says: "The orchestral words of Beethoven are the musical record of the great ideas of his time in the form and likeness they assumed in his mind. Haydn and Mozart perfected instrumental music in its form. Beethoven touched it *and it became a living soul.*" He died March 26, 1827.

MOZART.

JOHANN CHRYSOSTOMUS WOLFGANG GOTTLIEB Mozart was born in Salzburg, Jan. 26, 1756. His father was a bookbinder, but having both taste and talent for music, studied at Salzburg and became one of the prince-archbishop's musicians. The young Mozart was born and bred in an atmosphere that was redolent with music, where, from matins to vespers, the sweet strains rang and vibrated, and thrilled every passer-by as if the gates of Heaven had been left ajar, and seraphic strains floated through. At the age of three years he began to show signs of that remarkable talent which made his name immortal, and his compositions, even yet, are the masterpieces of musical works. At four years of age he played upon the harpsichord quite a number of pieces, and at five he made his first attempt at composition; while he was bright and quick at all his other studies, music was his favorite and in this he excelled. When seven years of age his family removed from Germany, and the boy and his sister played in all the principal cities of Europe, where they excited the greatest wonder and astonishment. In the fall of the same season he played upon the grand organ before the entire court of Versailles. Here he published his two first compositions, and the fame of the infant prodigy was the one great sensation of the times. From there he went to England, where he composed six sonatas, which were, by special request of Her Majesty, dedicated to the Queen. In Holland, when not more than eight years of age, he composed a symphony for a full orchestra. In 1769, when entering upon his teens, he was appointed concert master to the Archbishop of Salzburg. Everywhere he was met with the greatest enthusiasm. In 1771 he composed the first opera for the carnival, and heard for the first time the celebrated "*Miserere*." It may not be generally known that the reproduction of this piece was forbidden, that it could not be copied or published in any form or manner on pain of excommunication.

Mozart was in Rome during Passion Week, and going home from mass, immediately produced from memory, the intricate and marvelous "*Miserere*." Good Friday he again listened to it,

corrected any mistakes he might have made, and then took Rome by storm by singing it in a manner equal to those who had given it years of practice. It had never been written before, and it was thought that notes could never be made to express it; the surprise and admiration of professional singers was unbounded. The Pope was enraptured with him, and bestowed upon him the order of the Golden Spur, and at Bologna he was elected a member of the Philharmonic Society, an honor rarely conferred even upon the greatest singers. His position was now that of first singer in Europe, or rather first musician, for he was unexcelled either in vocal or instrumental music. His mother's death, which occurred in Paris, in 1777, occasioned his return to Salzburg, from whence he again made a tour to Europe, and then entered the service of the Emperor at Vienna, where he remained during the rest of his life. At the early age of thirty-five, when his already ripening honors were falling fast around him, death came suddenly, and the hand and brain wrought no more on earth the melodies that were fit for the lips of seraphs. His *Requiem* is perhaps his masterpiece, if we can choose, where all are so perfect.

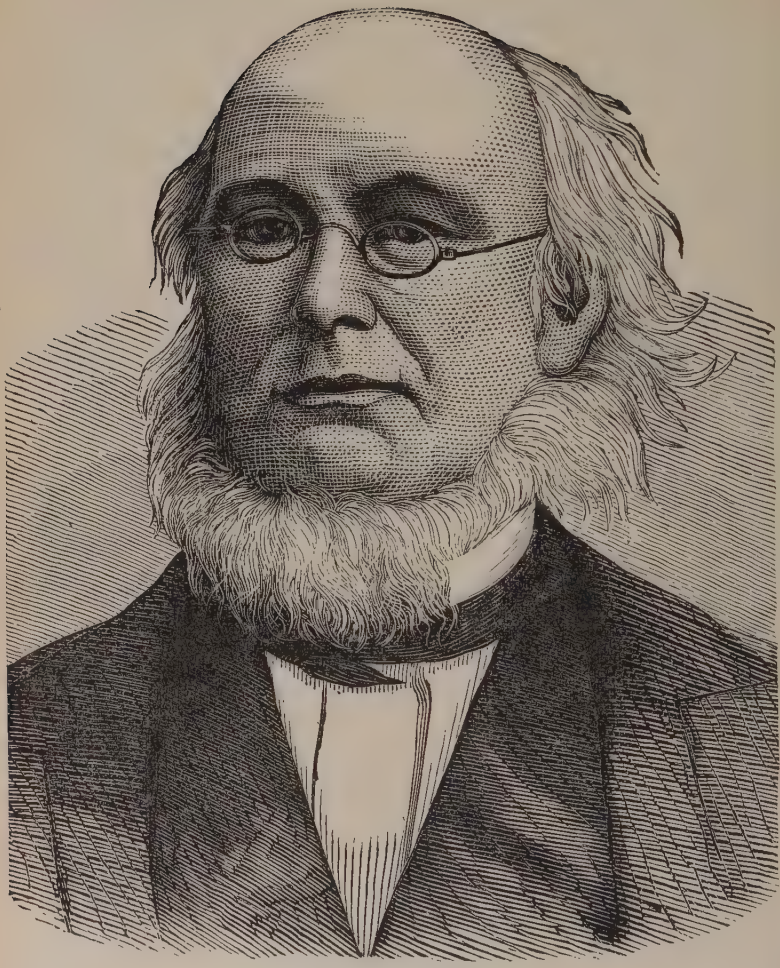
HORACE GREELEY.

HORACE GREELEY is, in every sense of the word, a "self-made man." His father, Zaccheus Greeley, was a poor New Hampshire farmer, who was only able to give him the advantages of a common school education; but his energy, ambition and capacity supplied all deficiencies, and enabled him to push his way from obscurity to the prominent position he now occupies.

Horace Greeley was born at Amherst, New Hampshire, on the 3d of February, 1811. He was a rather feeble child, and for years suffered from want of physical strength rather than from any positive disease. He lived with his parents in New Hampshire until the 1st of February, 1821, going to school a little and working on the farm a great deal, when, in consequence of his father's failure and the enforced sale of his farm, the whole family went to West Haven, Vermont. Here he was distinguished at school by the readiness with which he absorbed knowledge.

In the year 1826, being then fifteen years old, he entered the office of the "Northern Spectator," at Poultney, Vt., as an apprentice. It did not take him long to learn the typo's trade, and he was soon noted for his dexterity and accuracy as a compositor. It was here that he first began his literary work—seldom writing anything, but composing editorials as he stood at the "case," and setting them in type without taking the trouble to write them out. While at Poultney he not only set type and helped edit "The Spectator," but would lecture in the village lyceum, and was the referee in all disputes on historical or literary questions. In 1830 "The Spectator" suspended publication, and Horace was compelled to start anew. He left Poultney richer only by the trade he had learned, and the experience of his four years in a country village.

One morning in June of the above year, Mr. Greeley started from Poultney for the place to which his parents



HORACE GREELEY.

had removed in Pennsylvania, 600 miles away. With all his possessions suspended over his shoulder at the end of a hickory stick, he walked to Schnectady, where he took a boat on the Erie canal, walking at the other end of the route over one hundred miles before he reached his destination. Making his home in the northwestern part of Pennsylvania the base of operations he wandered through the surrounding country in search of employment. He finally got an engagement on the "Erie Gazette," where he remained for some seven months. As he had now nearly attained his majority, he concluded that it was time for him to do something, and determined to set out for New York City. At sunrise on the 18th of August, 1831, Horace Greeley landed at Whitehall, close to the Battery. His cash capital consisted of ten dollars. The first work he obtained in this city was assisting in the composition of a Polyglot Testament.

Mr. Greeley made his first business venture in New York as a partner in a daily paper called the "Morning Post," started January 1, 1833, by Dr. H. D. Shepard. The paper lived about a month. In March, 1834, he made his first visible mark in journalism by issuing "The New Yorker," a large and handsome weekly paper, devoted to literature and news.

Two years after starting this paper Mr. Greeley married. Five children have been born to him, of whom two boys and one girl died at an early age.

While publishing "The New Yorker" Mr. Greeley made his debut as a political writer, in 1838, on a small campaign paper called "The Jeffersonian," and in the Harrison campaign as the editor of "The Log Cabin." On the 10th of April, 1841, Mr. Greeley, almost moneyless and unaided, issued the first number of "The New York Tribune."

In 1848 Mr. Greeley was elected to Congress to fill a vacancy, and served from December 1 of that year to March 4, 1849.

In 1850 he published a volume of political lectures and essays, under the title of "Hints toward Reform." The following year he made a voyage to Europe, and during his visit to England served as a juryman at the Crystal Palace Exhibition. On his return he published a volume entitled "Glimpses at Europe.' Mr. Greeley's connection with politics previous to and during the late war is too well known to require mention. Striving in the

first place to preserve peace when the war had broken out, he advocated such measures as would bring it to a speedy conclusion.

Horace Greeley has ably and persistently advocated the interests of the working classes, and has used his political and social influence to further the schemes which have at various times been proposed for their benefit.

He was nominated for the presidency May 3d, 1872, but was defeated by General Grant. He died November 29th, 1872.

HUGH MILLER.

HUGH MILLER, son of a sailor, himself destined as geologist and naturalist, was born in the town of Cromarty, Scotland, October 10th, 1802.

Some one has said that Hugh Miller could converse with books. His earliest work was the well known essay on "My Schools and School-masters," "Scenes and Legends," and "Lykewake." The most important stages of his life carry him through his school-days—when, undoubtedly, he formed material for that autographic work, entitled, "My Schools and School-masters." That book has been recognized by all judges as one of the most captivating and able of the author's performances, and has a place in English literature from which it cannot be moved; but it is no substitute for the biography of Hugh Miller. It deals with but one portion of its author's career, and that the portion which preceded his emergence into public life. There is much biographic material relating to Hugh Miller, unencroached upon in the "Schools and School-masters." From early boyhood, he was fond of jotting down particulars connected with his personal history and for many years previous to his being harnessed to steady literary toil, he took great delight in letter-writing.

HUGH MILLER'S BOYISH ADVENTURE IN THE DOOCOT CAVE.

He was twelve years old when the notable adventure of the Doocot Cave afforded him the subject of his first verses. The

incident, slight in itself, happens to possess extraordinary interest in a biographical point of view. There exists at least four accounts of the incident drawn up by himself,—four successive paintings of the same scene, by the boy, the stripling, the man of twenty-seven, and the man of fifty.

The first is that referred to in the "Schools and School-masters," as executed in "enormously bad verse" a day or two after the occurrence. The copy from which this sketch is taken excited the admiring wonder of Miss Bond, mistress of the Cromarty Boarding School. Attached to it is that pictorial representation of the scene which Miller describes as consisting of "horrid crags of burnt umber, perforated by yawning caverns of India ink, and crested by a dense forest of sap-green." You can see what is intended; the sea is below the cavern, and the sward and wood are above; but the whole is not superior to the ordinary daubing of child-artists. The verses exhibit internal evidence of having been written within a day or two of the event they record. The agony of distress and terror experienced by the boy of twelve when he and his companion—a lad still younger—found themselves, as night came on, with the sea before, impassable rocks on either hand, and a dark cavern behind,—this, and their contrasted rapture when the boats hailed them at midnight, supersede all reflection on the beauties of the landscape or the wonders of the cave. The grammar and spelling are about as bad as possible. Here are the first two lines:

> "When I to you unfolds my simple tale,
> And paints the horrors of a rocky vail."

He forgets to say what will happen when the dreadful revelation takes place, and strikes presently into description of the cave. We need not retain the childish misspelling:

> "There stands a cavern on the sea-beat shore,
> Which stood for ages since the days of yore,
> Whose open mouth stands forth awfully wide,
> And oft takes in the roaring, swelling tide.
> Out through the cavern, water oozes fast,
> Which ends in nothing but white stones at last.

For several years this version seems to have contented him the revision it underwent extending only to verbal alterations. The lad of nineteen, however, discards the whole, and produces a

more polished and melodious ditty. The friend who shared the adventure is dismissed, and the interest centres in the "author," or, as he is now more poetically styled, "the Muses' youngest child," or, with a touch of remorseful pathos, "the Muses' rude, untoward child." He has learned to sketch in Scott's lighter manner, and there is something of gracefulness and vivacity in his handling.

"Well may fond memory love to trace
The semblance of that lonely place;
Much may she joy to picture fair
Each cliff that frowns in darkness there;
For when alone in youth I strayed
To haunted cave or forest glade,
Each rock, each lonely dell, I knew,
Where flowrets bloomed, or berries grew;
Knew where, to shelf of whitened rock,
At eve the sable cormorants flock;
Could point the little arm to where
Deep the wild fox had dug his lair;
Had marked with curious eye the cell
Where the rock-pigeon loved to dwell;
Had watched the seal with silent ken,
And, venturous, stormed the badger's den.

Hugh Miller was, at the time he left school, a rugged, proud, and stiff-necked lad, impossible to drive, and difficult to lead, his character already marked with strong lines, and developing from within or through self-chosen influences. "I saw," said Baxter, of Cromwell, "that what he learned must be from himself;" and the observation might already have been made of Hugh Miller. To his friends he was a perplexity and offense; to his uncles, in particular, who knew him too well, and were too sagacious to accept the off-hand theory of his school-masters, that he was merely a stupid and bad boy, he must have seemed a mass of contradictions. Intellectual in his wildest play, fond of books, and capable of discerning excellence from its counterfeits in thought and style, passionately addicted to the observation of nature, and forgetting no fact he once ascertained how could he be dull in the ordinary sense?

We find him as the boy mason in 1829, when he writes to Principal Baird: "My first six months of labor, presented only a series of disasters. I was, at the time, of a slender make and weak

constitution; and I soon found I was ill-fitted for such employments as the trundling of loaded wheelbarrows over a plank, or the raising of huge blocks of stone out of a quarry. My hands were soon fretted into large blisters, my breast became the seat of a dull, oppressive pain, and I was much distressed, after exertion more than usually violent, by an irregular motion of my heart. My spirits were almost always miserably low; and I was so wrapped up in a wretched, apathetic absence of mind, that I have wrought for whole hours together with scarcely a thought of what I was doing myself, and scarcely conscious of what others were doing around me."

Boy-life, with its freshness of faculty, its exuberence of delights, its opulence of wayward force, lies behind Hugh Miller.

He found his way up as master of the workmen with whom he was once wont to drudge. But misfortunes overtaking him, he was forced back to a barrack life, finally finding himself a friendless wanderer in the woods. But in his wanderings over rock and mountain crag, Miller the geologist out-climbed Miller the mason. In seeking employment, or in wandering about on pleasant summer evenings, he made the best of his talent in those studies which the naturalist or geologist delights in following.

Hugh Miller was a remarkable and eccentric character. His life covered the beautiful, august and heroic. From the father, whose very image he in later years became, he derived the groundwork of his character, and for the education of conscience he was indebted to his uncle James. In early manhood he was encompassed with hardships, with coarseness, with manifold temptations. His soul took no taint. He rose superior to every form of vulgarity: the vulgar ambition of wealth, the vulgar ambition of notoriety, the vulgar baseness of sensuality and license. He aspired to fame, but it was to fame which should be the ratification of his own severe judgment. "I have myself," he said, "for my critic;" and while the decision of this sternest censor was even moderately favorable, no sneers could depress, no applause elate him. His course was a steadfast pursuit of truth and of knowledge, an unwearied dedication of himself to all that he believed to be true, and honest, and lovely, and of good report.

Politeness is the last touch, the finishing perfection of a noble character. It is the gold on the spire, the sunlight on the corn-

field, the smile on the lip of the noble knight lowering his sword-point to his lady-love. It results only from the truest balance and harmony of soul. Hugh Miller possessed it. A duke in speaking to him would know he was speaking to a man as independent as himself; a boy, in expressing to him an opinion, would feel unabashed and easy, from his genial and unostentatious deference. Years in the quarry have not dimmed in Hugh Miller that finishing gleam of genial light which plays over the framework of character, and is politeness. Not only did he require honest manliness for this; gentleness was also necessary. He had both, and has retained them; and therefore merits fairly

"'The grand old name of gentleman.'"

So far as we can penetrate the charm of his composition, it lies mainly in the fine continuity of it, in the absence of all jerking, jolting movement, in the *callida junctura*, not of word to word merely, but of sentence to sentence, thought to thought, illustration to illustration. An author's peculiar excellence, if we have rightly discriminated it, will give us a hint as to where we should look for his besetting fault, and in reading Miller long at one time, we may find in his billowy regularity and smoothness of movement a sense of monotony. Yet, after all, there is a marvelous enchantment in his books; the breath of the hills is in them, the freshness of the west wind and the sea.

It was impossible to be long in Miller's company without perceiving the ardor of his devotion to science. He considered literature inferior to science as a gymnastic of the mind. For the facile culture of the age he had great contempt, and ranked both religion and labor as stimulating, training agencies for mind and character, higher than what is commonly called education. "As for the dream," he says in one of his books, "that there is to be some extraordinary elevation of the general platform of the race achieved by means of education, it is simply the hallucination of the age—the world's present alchemical expedient for converting farthings into guineas, sheerly by dint of scouring." All that he had won had been won by stern effort, and he had no faith in royal roads to any kind of attainment.

A man of priceless worth; fine gold, purified sevenfold; delicate splendor of honor, sensitive and proud; perfect sincerity and

faithfulness in heart and mind. He never failed a friend. His comrade of the hewing-shed sits down at his table when he has become one of the most distinguished men of his time; another friend is discoved to be at hand-grips with fortune, and he applies himself, with cunning delicacy, to solve the problem of inducing him to accept assistance. This was the manner and habit of the man.

Of his power of brain—of his genius and originality—his books, viewed in connection with the circumstances of his career, are the living witnesses. To their testimony must be added the fact of the great influence he exerted upon his contemporaries, the personal weight, the intellectual mass and magnitude, he was felt to possess.

Hugh Miller was a Presbyterian. He performed editorial labors during the Great Disruption, and later was a most eloquent and vigorous writer in the newly constituted Free Church. Severe mental toil at last undermined his powerful brain, and, in a moment of insanity, on the night of Dec. 23d, 1856, he committed suicide at Portobello, near Edinburgh.

DWIGHT L. MOODY.

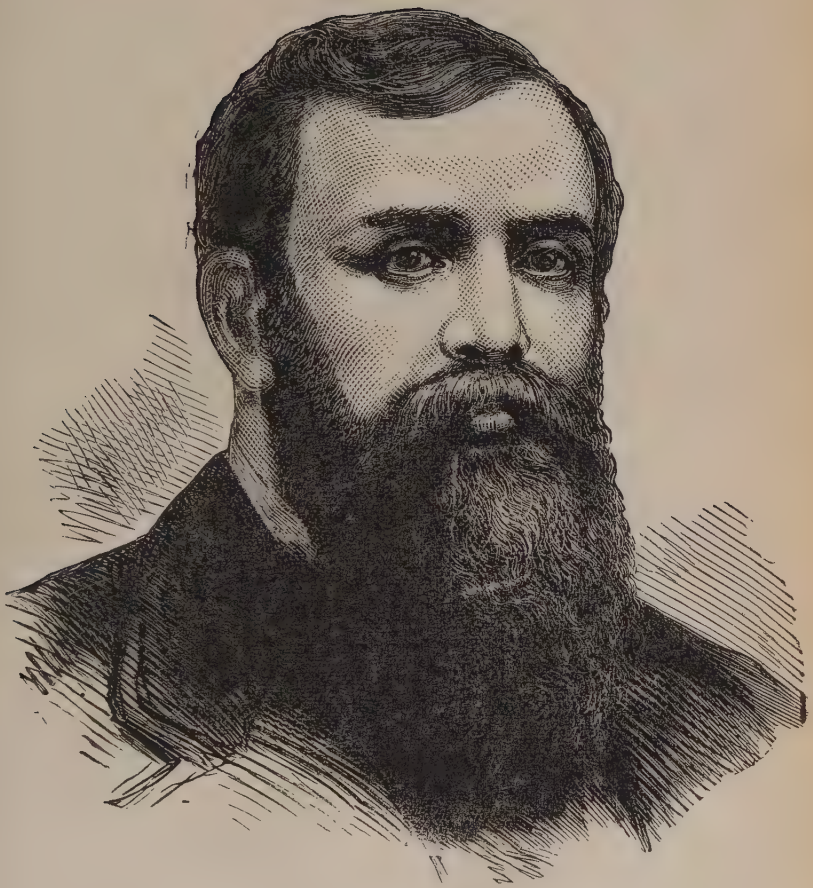
DWIGHT L. MOODY, the great Evangelist was born in Northfield, Massachussets, in 1837. In his boyhood he displayed great originality and force of character and the power of leadership that characterizes his later movements. At eighteen years, he entered the boot and shoe store of his uncle, in Boston; his parents were Unitarians, and he had been brought up in their belief; but he became a member of the Sunday-school attached to Dr. Kirk's Congregational Church, where an evangelical sermon had the effect of making him uncomfortable, and he determined not to go again; induced to go back the next Sunday, the serious impression was renewed,and having obtained joy and peace in believing, he applied for admission to the church on the 16th of May, 1855. The committee by whom his application was considered, recommended delay until he could acquaint himself

thoroughly with the fundamental truths of Christianity. After six months he was received into the communion of the church.

He removed, in 1856, to Chicago, where he obtained a situation in a shoe store. Desiring to make himself useful, he went into a Mission Sunday-school, and asked for a class. The answer to his application was, that the school was fully supplied with teachers, but that if he could gather a class for himself, he would be allowed a place in the school-room. He succeeded in bringing in eighteen boys, and he enjoyed this sort of work, and handed the class over to another teacher, and continued bringing in recruits until he had filled the school. He soon organized a separate school for the benefit of the lower classes, in one of the most forbidding parts of Chicago. It was called the "North Market Hall Mission School," and it became one of the most famous of the West, the attendance reaching one thousand. Mr. Moody decided to give up his business and devote his time to the work he had planned for himself.

Mr. Moody's work lay in a part of the city in which Roman Catholics and Germans abounded. Being no singer, he secured the help of a friend to sing for him, and for the first few evenings they spent the time alternately singing hymns and telling stories to the children. Very soon the children began to manifest a lively interest. Meetings were held every evening, and prayers offered and addresses delivered, the parents began to attend these meetings, and some of them were greatly blessed. Some of those then converted through his instrumentality, have since been among Mr. Moody's most valuable and active helpers in Chicago. An independent church grew out of the school and Mr. Moody became its unordained pastor. It was a hive of Bible readers, tract distributors, lay preachers, and missionary visitors.

Mr. Moody is not a man of education or culture; his manner is abrupt and blunt, his voice is sharp, rapid, and colloquial, and he never attempts anything like finished or elaborate composition. But he is in downright earnest. He believes what he says, says it as if he believed it, and expects his audience to believe. There is nothing of novelty in the doctrine which he proclaims. It is the old Gospel, old yet always fresh.



D. L. MOODY.

IRA D. SANKEY.

IRA D. SANKEY.

IRA D. SANKEY, the great singer and companion of Moody, was born at Edinburgh, Pennsylvania, in 1840. In early life he displayed a taste for sacred music, and after joining the church at the age of fifteen, he actively promoted the training of Sunday-school children in the singing of hymns. It was in Indianapolis, at a national convention of Young Men's Christian Associations, that Mr. Moody first heard him sing. The two men found that their views and wishes harmonized, and they decided to work together.

Mr. Sankey has a fine, full, soft, baritone voice, well trained, and over which he has complete mastery. His singing is plain and natural, with wonderful distinctness of articulation, and unaffected feeling. A certain class of hearers attend their meetings solely to hear Mr. Sankey.

The story of the successful European tour of Messrs. Moody and Sankey, of the auspicious opening of their work in this country, and their success everywhere, is one of the marvels of our day, and those who deny that the presence and blessing of God attend them and crown their labors, must concede to them personally and collectively a degree of power that is rarely possessed by two men. For our part, we prefer to believe that it is the Lord of Life whose power is working by their instrumentality.

COMMERCE.

LABOR—BANKS AND BANKING—THE MONEYED INSTITUTIONS OF THE OLD WORLD, PAST AND PRESENT.—SOLUTION OF OUR MONEY PROBLEM.

AN ADDRESS BY SYDNEY MYERS BEFORE THE CHICAGO PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Philosophical Society: Lord Bacon remarked that all matters in this universe are so connected together link by link, one thing to another, that it would seem impossible to give a full and clear dissertation upon one subject without entering into the consideration of all things. Believing this to be true, it strikes me that one should always approach the discussion of any subject in which great interests are involved with humility. My theme to-night is "Commerce," which in its broadest sense involves all intercourse. Its history is coeval with that of man and its future is in the ages. In its narrower sense commerce involves the interchange of commodities, and the interchange of commodities involves two departments, the one of transportation, and the other of exchange of ownership. Before commodities can exist labor must be pursued, and until I can find a better definition in the books I have adopted as a definition for labor "the intelligent application of power to use." Our mission here is to confer benefits one upon another, to exercise all the faculties with which the Creator has endowed us, to do in this life all the good we can, and to use our faculties physically, intellectually, and morally. If all were disposed and willing to exercise all their faculties to the full extent for the good of their fellows the

TRANSACTIONS OF COMMERCE

would be easier settled. The shoemaker would secure an abundance of flour from the miller; the bricklayer would offer his services to the shoemaker to build his house, and the laborer would come forward and carry the mortar. But it soon becomes necessary that the shoemaker, the butcher. the baker, and the builder should keep some record of how far they exercised their faculties for the good of their neighbors severally. We have first a verbal agreement on the part of one to compensate the other for services rendered as in our farming community. An exchange of labor takes place, and after a while perhaps some persons may come into the neighborhood who are forgetful of the services rendered, and therefore they take to keeping books. After a while these books become disputed and questions arise before the justices of the peace with regard to the validity of the entries, and then they say "give me your promissory note." From the promissory note, transactions becoming larger, the bill of exchange is brought into use. A large portion of the commerce of England is carried on by means of bills of exchange. After that comes the account with the great merchant, and after that come the accounts of numerous merchants who aggregate together their wealth, experience, and skill in that corporation sometimes called a bank. Again, another evidence of service, and which passes from hand to hand, is the obligation or promissory note of the bank. These promissory notes having at times been refused, we have in this country advanced to a condition where the promissory note is secured by collateral. This is one of the great steps in advance in that department of commerce which involves the change of ownership. By the New York banking system for the first time the promissory note of the bank was secured by something that was intrinsically valuable, superior in value to gold.

There have been a few advances made in regard to the

EXCHANGE OF VALUES

within the last 700 years, at which distant period the Bank of Venice was established. The next event occurred 217 years ago, when a man named Palmstruck, a Swede, invented the bank note. He became so unpopular on account of his invention of

the bank note that he got into difficulties, and finally was obliged to leave his country. But soon afterward the government of Sweden decided that after all the bank note was not such a very bad thing, and they took possession of the bank which Palmstruck had abandoned, and that bank to-day is the great central bank of Sweden.

The next step made was the establishment of the London Clearing House 100 years ago. The next step I believe to be the New York banking system, by which every promissory note was absolutely secured to the bill-holder. There was perhaps something of circuit to be pursued in order to ultimately reach security; but it was there. Every bill-holder was secured by the

OBLIGATION OF THE STATE.

After this soon followed the issue of the greenback and the 3 per cent. certificate. The impression may perhaps prevail that in other countries the bank notes are absolutely secured by something of intrinsic value behind its promise. I think that this is a mistake. I do not know of any country where every bank note in circulation is absolutely secured by something that is not only its equivalent but superior to it in value. Upon the New York system has been ingrafted our national bank system, and the mode of securing the notes is the same in both cases. According to Palgrave, who is considered a high authority on this subject, the total note circulation in Great Britain at a recent date was £43,620,000 sterling. Of this amount £30,000,000 composed what is called the fiduciary circulation—based on faith, "the substance of things hoped for and the evidence of things not seen." Behind £14,000,000 of the bank notes only is gold available for their redemption of the notes. The provincial banks have £5,000,000 in circulation, the Bank of England £25,000,000, the banks of Scotland £5,000,000, and the banks of Ireland £7,000,000, making with the country and private bank circulation a total of £43,620,000, as before stated. Of the

BANK OF ENGLAND

circulation £15,000,000 is fiduciary, making £30,000,000 in all. This fiduciary circulation is authorized partly by the charter of the bank, and has been increased to some extent since the act of

1844. But it was authorized in this way—and I am probably reminding most of you of facts that are perfectly familiar to you, and I believe the proper office of a speaker, and perhaps of a writer, is to remind people of what they know, and help them to organize their ideas. This £14,000,000 was authorized either upon the charter of the bank or at various times subsequent thereto. During the Napoleonic and other wars, the British Government had contracted a debt to the bank. It was a book account, and is a book account to-day. It was not based upon consols or anything of that kind. It was simply a charge against the British Government of £14,000,000. The law of 1844 permits the Bank of England to issue bank notes to the amount of this government debt, without having anything behind it. Now we may say that they have the government debt behind it; but Ernest Seyd, in his recent work on the Bank of England, says that it is acknowledged by all good authorities in London and Great Britain that the bill holder has

NO MORE CLAIM

for the security of the note which he holds upon the indebtedness of the British Government to the Bank of England, than has the depositor. Palgrave refers to but does not indorse an article which he designates as able, and from which he quotes, which was published in an issue of *Blackwood's Magazine* of rather recent date, in which the writer claims that the holder of the note, in case of the stoppage of the Bank of England, would not be a preferred creditor over the depositor as regarded the amount of gold which might be in the issue department of the bank. The system of the Bank of England, and I say it with due respect, but merely for the purpose of making an illustration, is very much like what would be a system of this kind a

CHICAGO ELEVATOR,

which, having a capacity for 250,000 bushels of wheat, should issue warehouse receipts for 1,000,000 of bushels, and which should be required to keep on hand 250,000 bushels as a reserve to redeem the warehouse receipts with. The price of grain rises, a demand for it is made, and it is flowing out of the country, and the owners of receipts require great quantities of wheat delivered.

After having delivered 250,000 bushels they suspend, or the government suspends the act by which they are required to deliver wheat on presentation of receipts, and by which they are restricted to the issue of receipts for 1,000,000 bushels on a reserve of 250,000 bushels. But the comparison is objected to, and it is claimed the Bank of England never suspended and never refused to deliver gold, or in the other case that the warehouse never refused to deliver wheat. But the act by which they were

REQUIRED TO REDEEM,

and were restricted from making excessive issues, has been suspended from time to time by order in council, and then notes are issued ad libitum. These notes are transferred from one to another who owes the bank in its discount department, and they finally are worked in as the bank squeezes the merchants and compels them to cover their obligation and are canceled in the issue department, and when they have got no eucess of notes out, then they resume. I do not know whether I make myself clear in mixing up grain with notes, but I am trying to state the principle on which the Bank of England has issued that £14,000,000 of fiduciary circulation behind it, and how it acts when gold is demanded on it. A person having a Bank of England note is permitted to draw coin as long as it lasts. This is merely an illustration of the system upon what are called specie-paying banks are concucted—that is, upon the English system.

THE BANK OF HAMBURG

is conducted upon the European system, which is quite different —the system on which our large warehouses in Chicago are now conducted. The Bank of Hamburg receives coin and charges storage, and keeps on hand as much coin as it gives receipts for. It was in this way that the Bank of Amsterdam was conducted. When the Bank of Amsterdam took from the coin in its warehouse a certain moderate amount and loaned it to the Dutch East India Company, and when it was understood that the bank had not as much gold coin on hand as it had receipts out for, it was declared that the bank had failed. That bank compromised with its creditors, but when it was declared that it had failed it

was in the normal condition of the Bank of England, and the banks established on the English system.

THE BANK OF VENICE

was peculiar in its organization, and its organization arose in a peculiar way. It is the first bank of which we have any record whatever. The Republic of Venice was carrying on a war with the Emperor of the East and with Greece at the same time. This was 1171, and they were pressed by land and sea, and needed money. The Council of Ten called upon the merchants to bring in their coin to the treasury, and assessed them all around according to their wealth. The government gave each individual credit on the books of the nation for the amount brought in. Soon one of the merchants, in the course of nature, died. He had credits in the Bank of Venice on which 4 per cent. interest was promptly paid. It became necessary, on his death, that this loan should be distributed among his five children, and five accounts were opened instead of one. A custom of transferring credits in the bank soon prevailed, and in such transfers all the great business of the merchants was soon transacted. The custom proaed exceedingly convenient and was soon approved and regulated by law, and under this system for 500 years Venice was prosperous. During that period they had but few failures, and the credits were transferred at the request of any person owning them. The credits were as high as

THIRTY PER CENT. PREMIUM,

over the coin which was in circulation. The government then undertook to reduce the premium by opening a branch office, receiving the coin of merchants, giving them credit for it and allowing them to draw out coin if they desired to send it abroad. They also allowed them to transfer their credits.

The banks of Amsterdam and Hamburg were established on this principle, and are doing business successfully. The Bank of Venice did business for

FIVE HUNDRED YEARS,

and during the Napoleonic wars, when the bank was thoroughly in operation, Massena, I think, a Marshal under Napoleon,

entered Venice, found the books of the bank and preserved them, and when the government was restored the credits were paid and nobody lost anything.

Mr. Myers then proceeded to quote from statistics published in 1840, showing the

AVERAGE FAILURES

in business. Not more than three in 100 business men of Boston acquired independence, and only 5 per cent. continued in business for forty years. A full examination of the books of the Union Bank of Boston showed that only six accounts in 100 remained open after a period of forty years. Ninety-five in 100 business men died poor.

In Philadelphia not over 1 per cent. retired with a competency without failure, and not two in 100 in New York acquired wealth without failure. This was in the United States from 1800 to 1840.

IN ENGLAND

there was one failure for every 1,500 inhabitants. One-fifth of 1,500 adults was 300. One-half of 300 adults was 150 male. One-tenth of these men would be in business, and therefore one in fifteen men failed in business in England in 1861. In Scotland there was one failure for every 6,000 persons, and by the same process of reasoning there was one failure in sixty. In the United States during the past fifty-nine years there had been ten panics, an average of one every 5 9-10 years. Professor Sumner, in his history of American currency, said that in England they had a panic once in every five years; but that in this country the average was one in ten years. He (Professor Sumner) attributed this to the extra momentum the American people possessed. They were like General Taylor's troops on the occasion of the battle of Buena Vista; they did not know when they were whipped. (Applause.) After observing that investigation and earnest thought and study was the best means by which we could secure a system by which the business of the country would not be continually brought to a standstill, he said he did not believe the

FINANCIAL WISDOM

of the world had been exhausted in the past, although by referring back 700 years they found that under the old bank of Venice they succeeded in getting along for 500 years without a financial crisis. He believed that the subject of finance would soon be as generally studied in the United States by all classes as had been the art of war, and that the press was about taking hold of it in earnest; that it would detail its ablest writers for this especial work, and would concentrate and place before the people the gist and essence of all that had ever been said, written or done in connection with the subject. The people would study and discuss it in their shops, offices, counting houses, in harvest fields and in granges, on the platform and on the stump.

The result of such a study would be as glorious in the case of finance as it had been in the study of the art of war, and they would live to see the day which would have a currency

ABSOLUTELY CONVERTIBLE.

Even Bonamy Price has said a currency which was absolutely convertible could ever be excessive. They would have a currency that was on a specie basis—that would be so valuable, that as Americans, they might be proud of it when they carried it abroad. They would have a currency that would not only be an equivalent of gold, readily exchangable for gold, but like the credits of the Bank of Venice be at a

PREMIUM OF GOLD.

Mr. Myers next referred to a paper he had prepared in 1872, previous to the stringency of that year. In the preparation of this paper he had endeavored to recognize the interest of all classes that might be affected by any legislation, and to produce a system which would be for the benefit of all and make the least possible disturbance in the community.

He introduced the intro-convertible bond idea in two forms, one to relieve extraordinary pressure, such as occurred after the Chicago fire, after the Boston fire, and in the panic of 1873, the other to absorb the excess of currency in mid-summer and mid-winter, when not needed, and thus prevent undue speculation and

inflation of prices, providing both a governor and safety-valve, and a guage to measure the actual needs of the country for more or less currency—divide the reserves among all the redemption cities and secure mutual redemption of national bank notes, and in the additional provision substituted for the fourth proposition to take the falsehood out of the greenback with the consent of the holder.

FIVE PROPOSITIONS.

Provided by act of Congress:

1. To permit any holder of $10,000, or multiples thereof, in any of the gold-bearing bonds of the United States, to retire the same temporarily, at the Sub-Treasuries or designated depositories in New York, San Francisco, New Orleans or Chicago, under regulations to be made by the Secretary of the Treasury, and receive an amount of United States legal-tender notes equal to the face of said bonds temporarily retired; and upon presentation of a like sum in United States notes at the place where said bonds were temporarily retired, to receive the said bonds, or their equivalent in kind, less the interest which would have accrued during the time that the said bonds were temporarily retired. And provided further, that the Secretary of the Treasury be required to hold in reserve United States legal-tender notes to the amount of $40,000,000, to be used for the purpose of temporarily retiring United States bonds as aforesaid, but the said notes shall not be used for any other purpose, nor shall the whole amount of United States legal-tender notes, including those which may be held in reserve and those which may at any time be held in the United State Treasury, Sub-Treasuries, and depositories exceed $400,000,000 until expressly authorized by law.

2. Provide for the convertibility and revertibility of United States legal-tender notes and gold-bearing certificates at Sub-Treasury or designated depositories in all the recognized financial centres (see sec. 31, national bank act*) in sums of $10,000, or multiples thereof, at the pleasure of the holder; certificates to be revertible at pleasure into legal-tender notes, at places of issue, to bear gold interest at the rate of $1 per day on $10,000 (equal to about three per cent. per annum, if dies non and the day of presentation for reversion be excluded); these certificates to be available for all the purposes for which three per cent. certificates were available (see act March 2, 1867). Said United States notes, temporarily retired, to remain in the Sub-Treasury or depository, where received, until demanded on presentation of certificates issued at said Sub-Treasury or depository, from each of which reports of expansion and contraction shall be forwarded daily to the United States Treasury, both by mail and by telegraph, and said reports shall be open to the inspection of representatives of the press.

The remaining sections were as follows:

3. Permit national banks, in redemption cities, to keep one-half of their lawful money reserved with redeeming agents in any or all of those cities named in section 31 of national bank act, and amend section 31 aforesaid, so as to include Savannah Mobile, Galveston, Leavenworth, Denver, Nashville, Vicksburgh, St. Paul, and Portland (O.), and permit the banks in said cities to count said balances as part of their reserve, as is now permitted as to one-half

of their lawful money reserve kept with redeeming agents in New York City alone.

4. Amend section 21, national bank act (as amended by act of March 3, 1865, and by act July 12, 1870), so as to remove those restrictions upon national bank circulation, which are based upon location, representative population, and reputed banking cities.

5. Permit any national bank (without necessarily reducing its capital or surrendering any of its franchises) to reduce its circulation and withdraw its securities prorata, until its circulation shall not exceed five thousand dollars ($5,000).

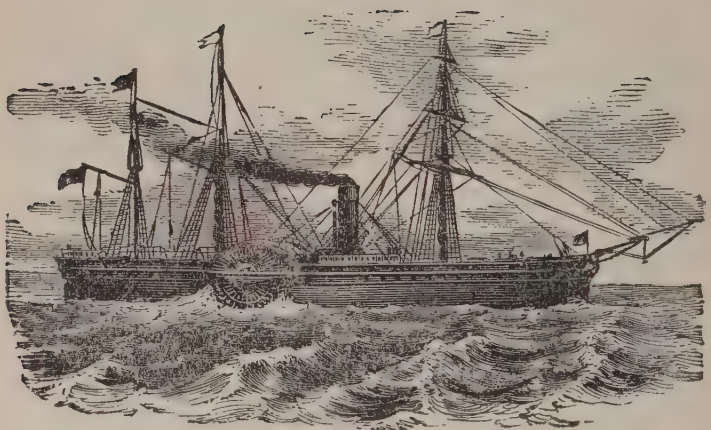
The fourth section having been practically applied by act of Congress, he has added the following clause:

Provide by act of Congress that all persons who shall deposit United States legal-tender notes, as provided in proposition 2, shall, by such act of deposit, be deemed to have given their consent to the exchange herein provided; and it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to replace all notes that shall be so deposited with a new issue and to destroy as much of the old issue of United States legal-tender notes as shall from time to time be so deposited and replaced by the new issue, provided the total amount of legal-tender notes, at any time outstanding, shall not be increased or diminished by these provisions; and provide further that the new issue of legal-tender notes shall read: "The United States is indebted to the bearer," etc., in place of the words, "The United States will pay the bearer," etc., and all new notes shall have an additional indorsement on the back thereof, setting forth briefly the terms under which said notes are convertible as provided in proposition 1.

In conclusion Mr. Myers said: The design of these amendments is to induce the holders of legal-tender notes, for the consideration of privileges offered in proposition 2, to release the United States from the obligation to pay its legal-tender notes as implied by the present wording thereof, and to enable the people to realize that any holder of legal-tender notes is a shareholder in the debt of the United States; and that under provisions of law he may transfer these evidences of debt due from the United States to him in payment of private indebtedness, in the absence of any contract or stipulation to the contrary; or that he may, at his option, exchange these legal-tender evidences of debt for obligations bearing interest payable in gold, and reconvertible into legal tender notes at his pleasure. Import duties being levied upon foreign goods should be paid as now in money recognized as such by the world at large—the money in which a national government must pay money obligations. No nation or individual can pay debts with its or his own promises.

He predicted as a result of these discussions the evolution of

a system superior to that enjoyed by any nation, not excepting Venice. That the delivery of amended greenbacks would transfer national debt as in Venice, and that as all other civilized nations were dissatisfied with existing systems, ours would probably ultimately prevail in other countries. That when once aroused our people could and would bring to bear upon the subject great intellectual power and in that orderly expression of public opinion called law, would secure the best possible results.



OCEAN IRON STEAMER.

LEGAL AND COMMERCIAL FORMS.

Notes, Bills, Orders, Checks, Drafts, Receipts, and General Legal Forms.

DEFINITION OF COMMERCIAL TERMS.

$——means *dollars*, being a contraction of U. S., which was formerly placed before any denomination of money, and meant, as it means now, United States Currency.

£——means *pounds*, English money.

@ stands for *at* or *to*. ℔ for *pound*, and bbl. for *barrel*. ℔ for *per* or *by the*. Thus, Butter sells at 20@30c ℔ ℔, and Flour at $8@12 ℔ bbl.

% for *per cent.* and ♯ for *number*.

April 1.—Wheat sells at $1.20@1.25, "seller May." *Seller* means that the person who sells the wheat has the privilege of delivering the same at any time during the month of May.

Selling *short*, is contracting to deliver a certain amount of grain or stock, at a fixed price, within a certain length of time, when the seller has not the stock on hand. It is for the interest of the person selling "short" to depress the market as much as possible, in order that he may buy and fill his contract at a profit. Hence the "shorts" are termed "bears."

Buying *long*, is to contract to purchase a certain amount of grain or shares of stock at a fixed price, deliverable within a stipulated time, expecting to make a profit by the rise of prices. The "longs" are termed "bulls," as it is for their interest to "operate" so as to "toss" the prices upward as much as possible.

PROMISSORY NOTES.

A promissory note is a promise or engagement in writing to pay a specified sum at a time therein limited, or on demand, or at sight, to a person therein named, or his order, or assigns, or to the bearer. The person making the note is called the drawer or maker.

A note is void when founded upon fraud. Thus, a note obtained from a person when intoxicated, or obtained for any reason which is illegal, cannot be collected. A note given upon Sunday is also void in some States.

Notes bear interest only when it is so expressed; after they become due, however, they draw the legal rate of the State. Notes payable on demand or at sight, draw no interest until after presentation or demand of the same has been made, unless they provide for interest from date on their face; they then draw the legal rate of interest of the State.

If "with interest" is included in the note, it draws the legal rate of the State where it is given, from the time it is made.

If the note is to draw a special rate of interest higher than the legal, but not higher than the law allows, the rate must be specified.

If the note is made payable to a person or order, or to a person or bearer, to a person or his assigns, or to the cashier of an incorporated company, such notes are negotiable.

When transferring the note, the endorser frees himself from responsibility, so far as the payment is concerned, by writing on the back above his name, "Without recourse to me in any event."

When a note is made payable at a definite peroid after date, three days beyond the time expressed on the face of the note (called days of grace) are allowed to the person who is to pay the same, within which to make such payment. Notes payable on demand are not entitled to days of grace.

If a note is payable at a bank, and it is held there on the day upon which it falls due, until the usual hour for closing, ready for receiving payment thereon, no further demand upon the maker is necessary, in order to charge the indorser. The demand must, in all cases, be made upon the last of the days of grace; a demand before that time passing for nothing as against the indorser.

The days of grace, which must be computed according to the laws of the State where the note is payable, are to be reckoned exclusive of the day when the note would otherwise become due, and without deduction for Sundays or holidays; in which latter case, by special enactments in most of the States, notes are deemed to become due upon the secular day next preceding such days. Thus, a note, due upon the twenty-fifth of December, is payable on the twenty-fourth, as the day when due is Christmas day; if the twenty-fourth chance to be Sunday, it is due upon the twenty-third.

In order to charge an indorser, the note, if payable at a particular place, must be presented for payment at the place upon the very day it becomes due; if no place of payment be named, it must be presented, either to the maker personally, or at his place of business, during business hours, or at his dwelling house, within reasonable hours; if payable by a firm, a presentment may be made to either of the partners, or at the firm's place of business; if given by several persons jointly, not partners, the demand must be made upon all. If the note has been lost, mislaid or destroyed, the holder must still make a regular and formal demand, offering the party at the same time, a sufficient indemnity in the event of his paying the same.

NEGOTIABLE NOTE.

$700. Cairo, Ill., June 1, 1875.

Three months after date, I promise to pay to Charles Jones, or order, Seven Hundred dollars, for value received.

John Smith.

NOTE NOT NEGOTIABLE.

$400. Camden, N. J., Sept. 12, 1875.

Six months after date, for value received, I promise to pay J. H. Foster, Four Hundred dollars.

Stephen Mills.

NOTE FOR TWO OR MORE PERSONS.

$1,000. Clinton, La., July 5, 1874.

We, or either of us, promise to pay to the order of James Grant, One Thousand dollars, for value received.

J. R. Shaw.
Henry Smith.

NOTE ON DEMAND.

$150. Chicago, Ills., March 10, 1870.

On demand, I promise to pay John Anderson, or order, One Hundred and Fifty dollars, value received, with interest.

U. S. Grant.

JOINT NOTE.

$800.60. Boston, Mass., March 15, 1872.

One year after date, we jointly, but not severally, promise to pay J. D. Smith, or order, Eight Hundred and 60-100 dollars, for value received, with interest at ten per cent.

Peter Mason.
Julius Hart.

NOTE PAYABLE BY INSTALLMENTS.

$700. Avon, Ill., May 10, 1875.

For value received, I promise to pay to Simon Butterfield, or order, Seven Hundred dollars, in manner following, to wit: Two Hundred dollars in one month from date; Two Hundred dollars in two months; and Three Hundred dollars in three months, with interest on the several sums as they become due.

Caleb Jones.

JUDGMENT NOTE.

For value received, I promise to pay to Delos Anderson of Buffalo, or order, Three Hundred dollars, with interest, on the first day of April next. And further, I do hereby empower any attorney of the Court of Common Pleas of Erie County, or of any Court of Record in New York, or elsewhere, to appear for me, and after a declaration filed therefor, to confess a judgment against me in the above sum, as of last, next, or any other subsequent term, with costs of suits, release of errors, etc., with stay of execution until said first day of April next.

Witness my hand and seal, at Buffalo, N. Y., this first day of October, in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two.

Signed, sealed, and delivered,
in presence of
Hiram Dows,
Martin Foster.

Henry Soper. SEAL.

NOTE PAYABLE IN MERCHANDISE.

$1,500. Chester, Ind., July 24, 1876.

For value received, on or before the first day of October next, we promise to pay H. Miller & Co., or order, Fifteen Hundred dollars, in good merchantable White Wheat, at our warehouse in this city, at the market value on the maturity of this note.

Smith & Jones.

DUE BILLS.

FORM OF DUE-BILL PAYABLE IN MONEY.

$100. Rochester, Ind., Oct. 21, 1875.

Due Walter W. Kelley, or order on demand, One Hundred dollars, value received.

C. Mason.

PAYABLE IN FLOUR.

$400. Chicago, Ills., Feb. 11, 1860.

Due on demand, to Sanford Burton, Four Hundred dollars, in Flour, at the market value when delivered. Value received.

Chas. H. Wheeler.

PAYABLE IN MONEY AND MERCHANDISE.

$200. Keokuk, Ia., May 19, 18—.

Due, on the 10th of June next, to A. B. Condit, or order, One Hundred dollars in cash, and One Hundred dollars in merchandise from our store.

Miller & Co.

PAYABLE IN MERCHANDISE.

$20. West Arlington, Vt., April 9, 18—.

Due Wright Marsh, Twenty Dollars, in merchandise from our store.

J. W. Goodspeed & Co.

ORDERS.

FOR MONEY.

Winona, Minn., Feb. 8, 18—.

Mr. H. L. Merriman:

Please pay Chas. B. Wilson, or bearer, Five dollars, on my account.

Patterson Smith.

FOR MERCHANDISE NOT EXCEEDING IN VALUE A SPECIFIED SUM.

Cincinnati, O., March 2, 1871.

Messrs. Tower, Powell & Co.:

Please deliver to the bearer, T. B. Sands, such goods as he may desire from your store, not exceeding in value the sum of Fifty dollars, and charge the same to my account.

Thomas Peterson.

FOR MERCHANDISE.

Galesburg, Ills., June 5, 1876.

Mr. B. H. Benson:

Please pay James Chandler, Seventy-five dollars in merchandise, and charge to

Weller & Mason.

FOR GOODS STORED.

Mobile, Ala., May 5, 1873.

Messrs. Scribner, Carson & Co.:

Please deliver to H. Alston, or order, One Hundred barrels of Flour, stored by me in your warehouse.

Walter Madison.

RECEIPTS.

FOR MONEY ON ACCOUNT.

Received, Richmond, Va., Mar. 21, 1873, of Wm. Baxter, Fifty dollars on account.

$50. Jas. Allison.

FOR MONEY ADVANCED ON A CONTRACT.

$1,000. New York, N. Y., Dec. 23, 1855.

Received of Geo. Hamilton, One Thousand dollars in advance, on a contract to build for him a brick house at No. 85 Water St., Pensacola.

Richard Matz.

IN FULL OF ALL DEMANDS.

$100. San Francisco, Cal., Sept. 12, 1875.

Received of Benj. Eustace, One Hundred dollars, in full of all demands to date.

Peter Millingford.

FOR RENT.

$300. Phila., Penn., Jan. 2, 18—.

Received of Walter B. Haskins, Three Hundred dollars, in full for one year's rent on dwelling at No. 237 Warren Ave.

D. C. Rowe.

FOR A NOTE.

$500. Washington, D. C., April 7, 1863.

Received of Campbell Fields, his note at sixty days for Five Hundred dollars, in full of account.

Charles Murray.

IN FULL OF ALL ACCOUNTS.

$160. Boston, Mass., Oct. 18, 1870.

Received of H. H. Sawyer, One Hundred and Sixty dollars, in full of all accounts.

Brown, Bates & Co.

FOR A NOTE OF ANOTHER PERSON.

$200. Memphis, Tenn., June 8, 1871.

Received of Ed. Jansen, a note of Sam. Fowler, for the sum of Two Hundred dollars, which, when paid, will be in full of all demands to date.

Herbertson & Welch.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

A Bill of Exchange is an order addressed to some person at a distance, directing him to pay a certain amount to the person in whose favor the bill is drawn, or to his order. A merchant in Chicago, owing a sum of money for goods to a merchant in London, instead of remitting money or goods to the amount of the debt, goes into the bank and buys from the banker, who keeps an account in London, a bill of exchange for the amount, and sends it to his creditor; in this way the creditor gets payment from a person in his own city, generally a banker, who keeps an account with some American banker for the purpose of paying such drafts.

Letters of Credit have come largely into use, of late years, with tourists abroad, though bills of Exchange are yet frequently used by persons who wish to travel in foreign countries. Thus, if A, an American, wishes to travel over Europe, he estimates the expense of the journey, and finds it to be, perhaps $3,000. To carry this with him, in gold, would be unsafe and troublesome. He therefore goes to a banker and gets a bill of exchange for a thousand dollars, which is the amount he thinks he may require while in England. The banker also having money deposited in Paris, perhaps, and also in Vienna, he takes a bill for a thousand on a bank of each of those places. With these bills in his possession, he commences his journey, with only money in his pocket sufficient to pay the incidental expenses of the trip, and draws on the London, Paris and Vienna bankers as occasion requires. The object of this arrangement is to secure travelers against loss, the bankers affording this accommodation to merchants and travelers for a percentage, which is paid them when they sell the bill of exchange.

In issuing these bills of exchange, it is customary for the banker to issue a set of two or three, worded nearly alike. One of these is kept by the purchaser, to be presented by him to the foreign banker, the other two are transmitted by mail, at different times, to the same bank. Thus, if the first bill is lost, the second or third, that go by mail, will still be available, and the holder can obtain the money without being subjected to the delay of writing to America for another bill.

DRAFTS.

A draft may properly be called an inland bill of exchange. It is customary for the bankers in all large cities, to make deposits with bankers in other large cities, and also for the banks in the interior towns to make deposits with some one bank in the nearest metropolis. Thus, the bankers of Milwaukee, Chicago and St. Louis, have deposits in New York, so that any person wishing to pay a certain sum of money to another person, East, has only to step into a bank and purchase a draft for the amount on New York, which he sends by mail to the creditor, who can usually get the amount the draft calls for, at the nearest bank.

The banker, as with bills of exchange, charges a certain commission to pay him for his trouble, which is termed "Exchange." There being less liabilitity to lose these inland bills, only one is usually issued. The merchant in the interior town, or other person, wishing to send money to Milwaukee, St. Louis, Cincinnati, or any other large city, can generally buy, of their home bank, drafts, thus, on the nearest metropolis, by the payment of the exchange.

The object in purchasing a draft is to avoid the danger of loss when sending money from one part of the country to another. Such form is worded as follows, and is known as a blank draft:

In making collections of money, drafts are frequently used, which are usually sent through the banks. A sight draft is used where the person upon whom it is drawn is expected to pay the debt immediately. In the time draft the same is made payable in a certain number of days.

SIGHT DRAFT.

$200. CANTON, ILL, July 10, 1875.

At sight, pay to the order of Higgins & Co., Two Hundred dollars, value received, and charge the same to our account.

To J. D. SMITH, Chicago. LELAND & CO.

TIME DRAFT.

$50 NEW ORLEANS, La., April 4, 1876,

Thirty days after date, pay to the order of Cobitt & Co., Fifty dollars, value received, and charge to our account.

To HOWE & Co., New York. JONES & CO.

ACCEPTANCE.

The acceptance of a draft is effected by the drawee, or the person upon whom the same is drawn, if he consents to its payment, by writing across the face of the draft thus: "Accepted July 22, 1874. U. S. Grant."

DAYS OF GRACE.

Three Days of Grace are allowed upon Promissory Notes and Bills of Exchange in the following States, according to laws in force, January 1, 1875:

Colorado,	Maryland,	Ohio,
Dist. of Columbia,	Massachusetts,	Oregon,
Florida,	Michigan,	Rhode Island,
Illinois,	Minnesota,	South Carolina,
Indiana,	Missouri,	Texas,
Iowa,	Nebraska,	Utah,
Kansas,	New Hampshire,	Vermont,
Kentucky,	New Jersey,	Virginia,
Louisiana,	New York,	West Virginia,
Maine,	North Carolina,	Wisconsin.

NOTE.—In States not enumerated here, the Commercial Laws of the States regulate in regard to Grace, Protest and Notice,

LANDLORD AND TENANT.

A person leasing real estate to another is termed a landlord; the person occupying such real estate is known as a tenant. The person making the lease is known in law as the lessor; the person to whom the lease is made, as the lessee. No particular form of wording a lease is necessary. It is important, however, that the lease state, in a plain, straightforward manner, the terms and conditions of the agreement, so that there may be no misunderstanding between the landlord and tenant.

It is essential that the lease state all the conditions, as additional verbal promises avail nothing in law. It is held, generally, that a written instrument contains the details, and states the bargain entire, as the contracting parties intended.

The tenant can sub-let part, or all, of his premises, unless prohibited by the terms of his lease.

A lease by a married woman, even if it be upon her own property, at common law, is not valid; but, by recent statutes, she, in many States, may lease her own property and have full control of the same; neither can the husband effect a lease that will bind her after his death. His control over her property continues only so long as he lives.

Neither a guardian nor a minor can give a lease, extending

beyond the ward's majority, which can be enforced by the lessee; yet the latter is bound unless the lease is annulled.

If no time is specified in a lease, it is generally held that the lessee can retain possession of the real estate for one year. A tenancy at will, however, may be terminated in the Eastern States by giving three month's notice in writing; in the Middle and Southern States, six months; and in the Western States, one month; though recent statutes, in some States, have somewhat modified the above.

The lease that specifies a term of years without giving the definite number is without effect at the expiration of two years. A lease for three or more years, being signed by the Commissioner of Deeds, and recorded in the Recorder's office, is an effectual bar to the secret or fraudulent conveyance of such leased property; and it further obviates the necessity of procuring witnesses to authenticate the validity of the lease.

Duplicate copies of a lease should always be made, and each party should retain a copy of the same.

A new lease invalidates an old one.

A landlord misrepresenting property that is leased, thereby subjecting the tenant to inconvenience and loss, such damages can be recovered from the landlord by deduction from the rent.

A lease on property that is mortgaged ceases to exist when the person holding such mortgage forecloses the same.

A landlord, consenting to take a substitute, releases the first tenant.

When there is nothing but a verbal agreement the tenancy is understood to commence at time of taking possession. When there is no time specified in the lease, tenancy is regarded as commencing at the time of delivering the writings.

If it is understood that the tenant is to pay the taxes on the property he occupies, such fact must be distinctly stated in the lease, as a verbal promise is of no effect.

PARTNERSHIP.

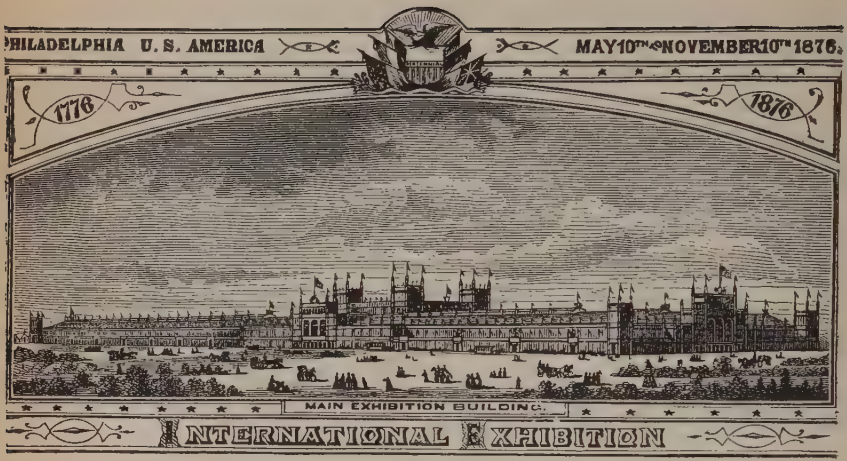
An agreement between two or more persons to invest their labor, time and means together, sharing in the loss or profit that may arise from such investment, is termed a partnership.

This partnership may consist in the contribution of skill, extra labor, or acknowledged reputation upon the part of one partner, while the other, or others, contribute money, each sharing alike equally, or in fixed proportion, in the profits, or an equal amount of time, labor and money may be invested by the partners, and the profits equally divided; the test of partnership being the joint participation in profit, and joint liability to loss.

A partnership formed without limitation is termed a general partnership. An agreement entered into for the performance of

VIEW OF RUINS ON THE SOUTH SIDE, CHICAGO.

GENERAL VIEW OF RUINS OF THE NORTH DIVISION


PHILADELPHIA U. S. AMERICA
MAY 10TH TO NOVEMBER 10TH 1876.
1776
1876
MAIN EXHIBITION BUILDING
INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION

1776
WOMEN'S PAVILION.
1876.

only a particular work, is termed a special partnership; while the partner putting in a limited amount of capital, upon which he receives a corresponding amount of profit, and is held correspondingly responsible for the contracts of the firm, is termed a limited partnership, the conditions of which are regulated by statute in different States.

A partner signing his individual name to negotiable paper, which is for the use of the partnership firm, binds all the partners thereby. Negotiable paper of the firm, even though given on private account by one of the partners, will hold all the partners of the firm when it passes into the hands of holders who were ignorant of the facts attending its creation.

Partnership effects may be bought and sold by a partner; he may make contracts; may receive money; endorse, draw, and accept bills and notes; and while this may be for his own private account, if it apparently be for the use of the firm, his partners will be bound by his action, provided the parties dealing with him were ignorant of the transaction being on his private account; and thus representation or misrepresentation of a partner having relation to business of the firm, will bind the members in the parntership.

An individual lending his name to a firm, or allowing the same to be used after he has withdrawn from the same, is still responsible to third persons as a partner.

A partnership is presumed to commence at the time articles of copartnership are drawn, if no stipulation is made to the contrary and the same can be discontinued at any time, unless a specified period of partnership is designated in the agreement: and even then he may withdraw by giving previous notice of such withdrawal from the same, being liable, however, in damages, if such are caused by his withdrawal.

Should it be desired that the executors and representatives of the partner continue the business in the event of his death, it should be so specified in the articles, otherwise the partnership ceases at death. Should administrators and executors continue the business under such circumstances, they are personally responsible for the debts contracted by the firm.

If it is desired that a majority of the partners in a firm have the privilege of closing the affairs of the company, or in any way regulating the same, such fact should be designated in the agreement; otherwise such right will not be presumed.

Partners may mutually agree to dissolve a partnership, or a dissolution may be effected by a decree of a Court of Equity. Dissolute conduct, dishonesty, habits calculated to imperil the business of a firm, incapacity, or the necessity of partnership no longer continuing, shall be deemed sufficient causes to invoke the

law in securing a dissolution of partnership, in case the same cannot be effected by mutual agreement.

After dissolution of partnership, immediate notice of the same should be given in the most public newspapers, and a notice likewise should be sent to every person having special dealings with the firm. These precautions not being taken, each partner continues liable for the acts of the others to all persons who have no knowledge of the dissolution.

GENERAL FORM FOR AGREEMENT.

This agreement made this ---- day of ---- 187-- by and between ---- of ---- and ---- of ---- Witnesseth: That the said ---- for the consideration of (here state nature of consideration) to be (if money paid,) (if work or labor or delivery of property) to be performed or delivered as hereinafter provided, hereby agrees that (state agreement of this party fully.)

And for the consideration above mentioned the said ---- hereby agrees, that (state agreement of this party fully.)

In witness whereof, we hereto subscribe our names and affix our seal this day and date first above written.

Name ---- [SEAL.]
Name ---- [SEAL.]

AGREEMENT FOR SALE OF PERSONAL PROPERTY.

This Agreement, made this ---- day of ---- 187--, between ---- of ---- and ---- of ---- Witnesseth: That the said ---- in consideration of the agreements on the part of ---- hereafter named, agrees to and with the said ---- that on or before the ---- day of ---- 187-- he will deliver to the said ---- at (state place of delivery,) the following property (state kind of property).

And the said ---- in consideration of the aforesaid agreements and promises on the part of the said ----, hereby promises and agrees to and with the said ----, that he will pay to him (state price to be paid) said payments to be made as follows (state how and when.)

In witness whereof, we hereto subscribe our names and affix our seals this the day and year first above written.

Name ---- [SEAL.]
Name ---- [SEAL.]

AGREEMENT FOR THE SALE OF REAL ESTATE.

This agreement, made this_____day of_____187__, by and between_____of _____and_____of_____, Witnesseth: That for and in consideration of the sum of_____ dollars, to be paid by the said_____to the said_____ as follows (state manner of payment), the said_____hereby promises and agrees to convey by (state nature of conveyance, whether warranty or quit-claim), the following described real estate situate in_____county, State of_____. (Give description of land.) And the said_____hereby promises to pay said _____the sum of_____dollars as above provided.

And upon the payment in full of said amount, then said conveyance is to be executed and delivered.

In witness whereof, we hereunto subscribe our names and affix our seals this the day and date above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]
Name_____[SEAL.]

Note.—To be executed and acknowledged as a deed for real estate.

FORM OF LEASE.

Agreement of Lease, made this_____day of_____, between_____of_____ and _____ of_____, Witnesseth: That the said_____agrees to pay to_____, _____dollars per_____for the rent of the house and premises on (description of land.)

The said_____agrees to use said premises for no other purpose than_____, and not underlet the same without the written consent of_____. This lease to commence on the _____day of_____187__, and continue until the_____day of _____187__. The rent to be paid (*state how*) to the said _____at_____. A failure to pay the rent as agreed, or to comply with any of the stipulations of their lease by_____, shall authorize the said_____to consider the same forfeited; and he may take possession of the premises without notice and without process of law, or he may bring his action as allowed by law to recover possession.

In witness whereof, we hereunto subscribe our names and affix our seals this the day and date first above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]
Name_____[SEAL.]

FORM OF DEED.

This Deed made this_____day of_____187__, Witnesseth: That for the consideration of_____dollars, we_____ of_____county, State of_____, hereby sell and convey unto_____of_____county, State of_____, all the following described real estate, situate in_____county, State of_____ (Here give a description of the land) together with all the estate, title and interest, dower, and right of dower of said grantors, or either of them.

And we hereby warrant the title to said premises against all persons whomsoever (or if quit claim say), and we hereby quit claim all our right, title and interest in and to said premises to the grantees herein.

Witness our hands and seals this day and date above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]

Name_____[SEAL.]

The State of_____ } ss.
_____County. }

Be it Remembered, That on this_____day of_____ 187__, before me a_____within and for said county and State, personally appeared_____, who personally known to me to be the identical person whose name____affixed to the foregoing deed as grantor, and she acknowledged the same to be her voluntary act and deed, and the said_____, having been made acquainted with the contents hereof, and the nature of the above instrument having been fully explained to her, and having been examined by me separate and apart from her husband, acknowledged that she signed and executed the said deed freely and voluntarily, and without compulsion, and that she does not desire to retract the same.

In witness whereof, I hereto set my hand and_____seal this the day and date last above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]

Note.—In all cases should have two witnesses to the signature.

MORTGAGE DEED.

This Deed, made this_____day of _____, 187__, Witnesseth: That for the consideration of_____dollars, we _____of_____county, State of_____, hereby sell and convey unto_____of_____all the following described real estate, situate in_____county, State of _____to wit: (Here describe real estate.)

And we hereby warrant the title to said premises against all persons whomsoever.

This deed to be void, however, on condition____pay. (State nature of indebtedness, time and manner of payment.)

(If homestead say), and the property conveyed being our homestead, we hereby expressly waive all benefit of the homestead and exemption laws, and consent that said property shall be liable for the payment of said indebtedness. Otherwise of force and virtue.

Witness our hands and seals this the day and date above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]
Name_____[SEAL.]

FORM OF WILL.

In the name of God, Amen.

I, (give name of testator) of (residence), being of sound mind and memory, do hereby make, publish, and declare this to be my last Will and Testament, hereby revoking and making void all former Wills by me at any time heretofore made.

First—I order and direct my Executors, as soon after my decease as practicable, to pay off and discharge all the debts, dues and liabilities that may exist against me at the time of my decease.

Second—I give and bequeath unto my wife (name). (Here state property bequeathed.)

Third—I give and bequeath unto my son (name). (Here state property bequeathed.)

Same form for each legacy.

Fourth—I hereby nominate and appoint. (Here give name of person or persons selected as Executors.)

In Witness Whereof, I have hereunto subscribed my name this_____day of_____A. D.

_____Name.

The above and foregoing instrument was at the date thereof signed, sealed, published and declared, by the said (name of testator), as and for his last Will and Testament, in presence of us, who, at his request, and in his presence, and in the presence of each other, have subscribed our names as witnesses.

Name._____ _____Residence.
Name._____ _____Residence.

Note.—Must be signed by the testator before acknowledged by him to be his will—and must be signed by testator in presence of witnesses—or acknowledged by him in presence of witnesses. Two witnesses are necessary.

ARTICLES OF CO-PARTNERSHIP.

This agreement, made and entered into this_____day of_____, 187—, by and between_____ of,_____, and_____, of_____

Witnesseth: that the said parties hereby agree to become partners in the business of_____at_____ for the term of_____years from the date hereof, under the firm name of_____.

Said parties have each contributed the sum of_____ dollars as the capital stock of said firm.

Both parties are to devote their entire time and skill for the common benefit.

All expenses of the business and all losses are to be borne in common, and the profits are to be equally divided.

Books of account are to be kept, in which shall be entered all money received or paid, all purchases and sales of goods, and all matters of account relating to the business of the firm, which shall at all times be accessible to both.

No money or other property shall be withdrawn by either partner, or applied to his own use, except with the written consent of the other partner; and in every such case the same shall be charged, and his share of the profits shall be reduced in proportion to the amount withdrawn.

Once in each year a correct account shall be taken and stated on the ledger of all stock property and assets of the firm, and of all debts and liabilities.

At the close of the partnership a like account shall be taken and stated, and the stock and property, and the debts, shall be equally divided after payment of the liabilities of the firm.

No debt or claim of the firm shall be released or settled without payment in full, unless by consent of both partners.

Neither partner shall have power to bind the firm as surety in any case; and neither partner shall become surety for another without the written consent of the other partner.

Witness our hands and seals this the day and date above written.

Name_____[SEAL.]
Name_____[SEAL.]

AGREEMENT TO CONTINUE A CO-PARTNERSHIP.

As the partnership existing between the undersigned will expire on the_____day of_____, 187__, it is hereby agreed that said co-partnership shall continue upon the same terms and conditions as provided in the original articles of co-partnership for the further term of_____from the date of the expiration of said co-partnership as fixed by the said articles.

Witness our hands (as in articles, giving date).

AGREEMENT FOR DISSOLUTION OF CO-PARTNERSHIP.

The undersigned hereby agree that the co-partnership existing between them, as is witnessed by the Articles of Co-partnership signed by us, be, and the same is hereby, dissolved, except for the purpose of final settlement of the business thereof, which may be settled by---------- And upon such settlement, then said co-partnership shall be wholly dissolved.

Witness, etc. (as above.)

POWER OF ATTORNEY.

Know all men by these presents, that I---------- of---------, hereby make, constitute, and apppoint---------- of----------, my true and lawful Attorney, for me, and in my name, place and stead, to (here state duty of Attorney) granting unto my said Attorney full power and authority to do and perform each and every thing necessary and proper to be done in the performance of his duty, as fully as I might or could do if personally present, hereby ratifying and confirming all the lawful acts of my said Attorney, done under and by virtue hereof.

Witness my hand and seal this----------day of---------- A. D. 187--.

Name----------[SEAL.]

Note.—To be signed and acknowledged as a deed for the conveyance of real estate.

FORM OF SUBMISSION TO ARBITRATION.

Know all men by these presents, that whereas a controversy is now existing between (name), of (residence), and (name), of (residence), touching (here state nature of controversy):

Now, therefore, we, the said (here give names of parties), do hereby submit said controversy to the decision and arbitration of (here give names of three persons selected as arbitrators), of (here state residences), and do covenant each with the other that we will faithfully keep and abide by the decision and award that they, or any two of them, may make in writing—said award to be made and signed on or before (here give date).

And it is agreed by the parties hereto, that the party that shall fail to abide by and observe said award, made in accordance with the foregoing submission, shall forfeit and pay to the other the sum of (here insert amount).

Witness our hands this----------day of----------A. D.------

----------Name.

----------Name.

AWARD OF ARBITRATORS.

The undersigned to whose arbitration was submitted the matters in controversy between (here give names of parties) as more fully appears by their written submission hereto attached, report that on the day of------A. D. 18—, after having been duly sworn according to law, and having given both parties —— days notice in writing of the time and place of our meeting to consider said matter, we proceeded to the discharge of our duty; said (name of party) appearing in person (if by Att'y also, so state) and said (name of party) appearing in person (if by Att'y also so state.) And having heard the allegations and proofs of said parties, and the witnesses introduced by them, and having examined the matter in controversy submitted by them, do make and declare this as and for our award.

Here state findings of Arbitrators.

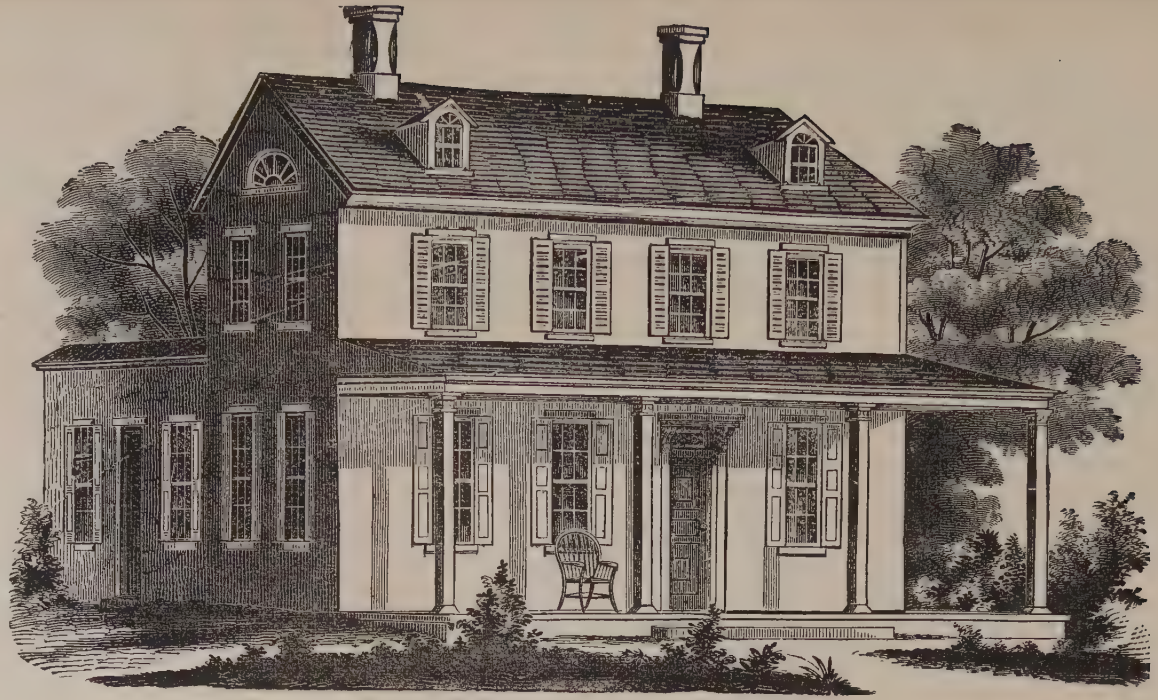
Witness our hands this ————day of--------A. D.-----.

----------Name.

----------Name.

----------Name.

PENNSYLVANIA OIL WELLS.



THRIFTY AMERICAN FARMER'S RESIDENCE.

THRIFTY AMERICAN FARMER'S BARN.

IMPORTANT TO WORKINGMEN.

The artisans of Philadelphia deserve the credit of a thoroughly successful scheme for the benefit of their class. Some years ago, the first "Co-operative Building and Loan Association" was organized in the City of Brotherly Love. Since then the work has gone quietly on, until now students of social science are amazed to hear that 600 of these societies exist in Philadelphia alone; that their aggregate capital is $150,000,000; and that many, very many, of their members, who have always worked and still work for day-wages, now own houses and land worth from $10,000 to $15,000. Only a small percentage of these associations has failed.

They are all organized on substantially the same plan. A share is issued to every applicant. One dollar per month is paid on each share. Each month, the money on hand is loaned to the shareholder who offers the largest premium and can give the best security. No loans are made except on real estate. The premiums bid sometimes amount to 25 or even 50 per cent. This is one source of income and the monthly interest is another. Fines, small in amount, rarely incurred, but rigorously exacted, are still another. In eight and a half years, the amount paid in will amount to (102 months at $1) $102. Profits, interest and fines swell this to $200, the par value of each share. The shareholder then receives this sum, thus making a net profit of $98 on an investment of $102, or, if he has borrowed money, his mortgage is cancelled *pro tanto*. A man can hold any number of shares. This fact enables the laborer to buy his home. A man who takes five shares in one of these societies will accumulate $1000 in eight and one-half years, by paying $60 per year. If he borrows $1,500 as soon as he becomes a stockholder, at such a rate that he pays an average of $140 a year in premiums and interest (this is the usual rate on a loan of $1,500), and buys with this sum a house and lot, which are pledge to the society as security, he will pay, each year, $200—that is $60 on his shares and $140 on his loan. At the end of eight and one-half years, his payments on his shares will cease, and he will have $1000 to his credit on the books, which will cancel his mortgage. He will then own his home, subject to a mortgage of only $500. If he now takes three more shares, his annual dues will be $36 on them and about $44 interest—$80 in all. In eight and a half years more, his shares will be worth $600, which will cancel his mortgage and give him $100 cash. He has

thus bought his house and lot in seventeen years, by paying $200 per year for half that time and $80 annually thereafter. This is $2,380 in all. If he had rented such a house, he would have paid $200 a year rent, or $3,400 in seventeen years, and would own nothing. If he can afford to take eight shares at the beginning, his house will be paid for in eight and a half years. Thousands of workmen have become small capitalists in this way.

These societies are organized, controlled, and managed by workingmen. This explains their success, as it explains that of the great co-operative establishments of England and of Schulse-Delitsch's "Peoples' Banks" in Germany. A summary of the report of one building and loan society, "The Artisans'," shows that its receipts for the year 1875 were $88,622; the loans, $68,872; and the profits, $19,749. The total property is $252,112, and the mortgages held amount to $227,600. The expense of managing this business was only $873.

LOADING STEAMBOAT WITH COTTON ON THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

ARE RICH MEN DANGEROUS TO THE REPUBLIC?

The Record of the Astor family cause some people to look with apprehension and dislike upon this massing of enormous wealth in the hands of one person. They fancy that it tends to make him too powerful for a republic like ours, and too influential for evil in a community, so many of whose citizens are dependent upon their labor for their daily bread. They attribute to great wealth a snow-ball like quality of attracting to itself the lesser fortunes with which it comes in contact, and predict that if it be allowed full liberty, an epoch will arrive when a few rich men will own the whole country, and all the rest of its inhabitants be obliged to pay them tribute. In their view, the Legislature should interfere to prevent this calamity, and by a compulsory division of such great estates as Mr. Astor's, scatter its bulk, and thus destroy its weight and momentum.

The conclusive objection to legislation of this kind is, that to be just it must be general, and a general law taking away from men the privilege of disposing of their property at their own pleasure, would discourage industry and enterprise. Human nature is such that with most of us selfish motives are powerful, and unselfish ones are weak. If no work were done in the world but what contributes to the welfare of others, comparatively little, beyond that which necessity compels, would be done at all. Nearly all the immense advances of modern civilization are due to efforts of which the mainspring has been the love of gain. Paralyze, or even weaken, this mainspring by impairing the right of disposing of the gain when it has been acquired, and you arrest the onward progress of the world. Whatever evils may arise from the existing liberty of accumulation, a greater evil would result from abolishing it.

But, to our minds, the danger to the public from the perpetuation of great estates is more imaginary than real. By a gracious dispensation of Providence, men who are rich by inheritance find their abilities scarcely sufficient for the task of taking care of their riches, and have none to spare for that of oppressing their fellow men. The founder of a fortune, like the first Astor or the present Vanderbilt, must, of course, be a man of great force and ambition, but his successor never equals him in this respect. The incentive dies with the attainment of the object which aroused it. A son who finds a large estate ready made to his hands cannot possibly exert himself to increase it with the energy that his father displayed in getting it. He inevitably subsides into a mere steward or investment agent, and leaves the field of new enterprise to others. John Jacob Astor was a mercantile genius. His schemes embraced the whole globe, and he gathered in wealth from its four quarters. His son, who inherited the fruits of his toil, has done

nothing all his lifetime but build houses and collect their rents. His son and his son's son will do no more. Neither commerce nor politics has anything to fear from them. What they will chiefly care for will be to hold on to what they have. This is the case with the Duke of Westminster, the great English landed proprietor, with the Orleans family in France, and the Austrian Esterhazys. Even the present head of the Rothschilds has subsided into a humdrum banker, who never runs a risk, and is content to let younger and more adventurous houses take the lead in finance. Besides, the truth is that the accumulative power of money, unlike that of the snowball, diminishes as its bulk increases. It is impossible to handle millions of dollars and make them yield the same income that thousands do. Where a small investor can safely get his seven, eight or ten per cent. *per annum*, a large capitalist like Mr. Astor cannot, on an average, get five. The good things are all snapped up by men who, having less to look after, do it more thoroughly; and the proverbial timidity of millionaires interferes with that promptness and soundness of judgment essential to a successful investor. This is proved by the history of this very Astor estate. When John Jacob Astor died in 1848 it was worth $20,000,000. With all the rise of the real estate, of which it is largely composed, it has only doubled in value in the twenty-seven years which have since elapsed, and the probability is that it will take as long to double it again. The Girard estate in Philadelphia, and that of Thellusson in England, illustrate the same law. Neither of these great properties has grown at a rate at all approaching that of lawful interest compounded half yearly.

The counterbalancing advantages, too, of great permanent fortunes should not be left out of consideration. When money remains for a length of time in a family, it usually comes, at some period or other, into the possession of a generous, public-spirited owner, who uses it in a way that profits his fellow man. He may be a lover of art and gather a collection of pictures and statues which he will throw open to the public; or he may be fond of books and form a library for the use of poorer scholars; or he may—and heaven send such an one to us soon!—have a taste for good architecture and build streets of houses which shall be at once grateful to the eye and convenient to dwell in. Or, finally, the family may die out, and the last survivor may imitate the example of Peabody, and devote his wealth to public benefactions.

THE STEAM ENGINE.

Mr. Phillips, the eminent Professor of Geology, in the University of Oxford, remarks that, "coal, since it has been applied to the steam-engine, is really hoarded power applicable to almost every purpose which human labor, directed by ingenuity, can accomplish." He then goes on to remark, with the pride of a genuine Briton, "It is the possession of her coal-mines which has rendered Britain in relation to the whole world, what a city is to the rural district which surrounds it — the producer and dispenser of the various products of art and industry. Our coal-fields are vastly more precious to us than would have been mines of the precious metals, like those of Peru and Mexico." If the latter statement be true of Britain it must be true of the United States also, even to a much greater extent.

According to Mr. Hunt, the keeper of the Mining Records of Britain, the coal area of the British Islands is 12,800 square miles, or one-tenth of the whole surface; according to the same authority, the proportion in the United States is still greater; the coal area being two-ninths of the whole surface. Scotland possesses the largest coal-field in Britain — 1,600 square miles in the basin of the Forth and Clyde; this field is very rich in iron as well as coal. Between the Tweed and the Trent, in the north of England, there are nearly 10,000 square miles.

WHO DEVELOPED STEAM-POWER?

It was in one of these districts that Watt brought forth his almost, if not quite, perfect *condensing engine*. On the Forth and Clyde Canal was the theater for Symington's steam-boat. Near Newcastle — the Newcastle of coals — the Stevensons grew to maturity, connected with those great collieries; and there, too, grew to full development of monstrous power and bird-like speed, their giant pet, the locomotive. On the Schuylkill and the Delaware successfully experimented Oliver Evans and John Fitch; here, too, on or near the great anthracite coal-fields of Pennsylvania, Robert Fulton first saw the light, and noted the development of steam-power, to which he has allied his name for all time.

We propose now to see what the steam-engine, well fed and watered, can do. In the language of Dr. Lardner, "Coals are by the steam-engine, made to spin, weave, dye, print, and dress silks,

cottons, woolens, and other cloths; to make paper and print books upon it when made; to express oil from the olive [aye, we may add, and from cotton seed too, which is largely taking the place of the oil from the olive, for which it is sold in all the markets of the world], and wine from the grape; to draw up metals from the bowels of the earth; to pound and smelt it, to melt and mold it, to forge it, to roll it, and fashion it into every desirable form; to transport these manifold products of its own labor to the doors of those for whose convenience they are produced; to carry persons and goods over water and land, from town to town, and country to country, with a speed as much exceeding the ordinary wind, as the ordinary wind exceeds that of a common pedestrian."

INTERESTING FACTS.

"Such are the virtues, such the powers, which the steam-engine, with its rotary or continuously circular motion, as brought into being by Watt, has conferred upon COALS. The means of calling these powers into activity are supplied by a substance which nature has happily provided in unbounded quantity in every part of the earth; and though it has no price, it has inestimable value. This substance is water. A pint of water may be evaporated by two ounces of coals. In its evaporation it swells into two hundred and sixteen gallons of steam, with a mechanical force sufficient to raise a weight of thirty-seven tons a foot high. The steam thus produced has a pressure equal to that of common atmospheric air; and by allowing it to expand by virtue of its elasticity, a further mechanical force may be obtained at least equal in amount to the former. A pint of water, therefore, and two ounces of common coal, are thus rendered capable of doing as much work as is equivalent to seventy-four tons raised a foot high.

"The circumstances under which the steam-engine is worked on a railway are not favorable to the economy of fuel; nevertheless, a pound of coke burned in a locomotive-engine will evaporate about five pints of water. In their evaporation they will exert a mechanical force sufficient to draw two tons weight on the railway a distance of one mile in two minutes. Four horses, working in a stage-coach on a common road, are necessary to draw the same weight the same distance in six minutes.

"A train of cars, weighing about eighty tons, and transporting 240 passengers with their luggage, has been taken from Liverpool to Birmingham, and thence back to Liverpool, the trip each way taking about four and a half hours, stoppages included — the distance being 95 miles. This double journey of 190 miles is effected by the mechanical force produced from the combustion of four tons of coke, valued at 5*l*. To carry, in England, the same num-

ber of passengers daily between the same places, by stage coaches, would require 20 vehicles and an establishment of 3,800 horses, with which the journey would be performed both ways in about twelve hours, stoppages included.

"The circumference of the earth measures 25,000 miles; and if it were begirt with an iron railway, such a train as that described carrying 240 passengers would be drawn round it by the combustion of about thirty tons of coke, and the circuit would be accomplished in five weeks."

Capt. Savery contrived his engine, in 1698, with especial reference to the drainage by pumping of the deep mines of England, and it was used mainly for this purpose. Indeed, it is necessary to recollect that, notwithstanding the extensive and various applications of steam-power in the arts and manufactures, up to the time when Watt got his patent extended in 1775, the steam-engine had never been employed for any other purpose than that of raising water by working pumps.

The water of streams was used over and over again, in the manufacturing districts of England, by being pumped up, and thus re-supplied to water-wheels driving machinery. The motion required, therefore, was merely an upward force, such as is necessary to elevate the piston of a pump.

"In the drainage of the Cornish mines now, the economy of fuel is much attended to, and coal is made to do more there than elsewhere. A bushel of coal usually raises 40,000 tons of water a foot high; but on some occasions it has raised 60,000 tons a foot high. Let us take its labor at 50,000 tons. A horse worked in a fast stage coach, pulls against an average resistance of about a quarter of a ton weight. Against this he is able to work at the usual speed through about 8 miles daily; his work is, therefore, equivalent to about five hundred tons raised one foot. A bushel of coals, as used in Cornwall, therefore, performs as much labor as a day's work of one hundred such horses."

"When steam-engines were first brought into use, they were commonly applied to work pumps for mills, which had previously been worked or driven by horses. In forming their contracts, the first steam-engine builders found themselves called upon to supply engines for executing the same work as before had been executed by a certain number of horses. It was, therefore, convenient, and indeed necessary, to be able to express the performance of these machines by comparison with the animal power to which manufacturers, miners, and others, had been so long accustomed. When an engine, therefore, was capable of performing the same work, in a given time, as any given number of horses of average strength usually performed, it was said to be an engine of so many horses' power. It was, however, a considerable period before this term came to have a definite meaning. Mr. Smeaton estimated that

a horse of average strength, working for eight hours a day, was capable of performing a quantity of work equal in its mechanical effect to 22,916 tons raised one foot per minute, while Desaguliers estimated the same power at 27,500 tons. The difference between these estimates probably arose from their being made from the performances of different classes of horses."

"Messrs. Boulton and Watt caused experiments to be made with the strong horses used in the breweries of London, and from the results of these trials they assigned 33,000 pounds, raised one foot per minute, as the value of a horse's power. This is the unit of engine power now universally adopted. The steam-engine is no longer used to replace the power of horses, and, therefore, no contracts are based upon this comparison. The term horse-power, then, means simply the ability of the engine to move 33,000 pounds through one foot per minute."

"The conversion of a given volume of water into steam is productive of a certain definite amount of mechanical force, this amount depending on the pressure under which this water is evaporated, and the extent to which the expansive principle is used in working the steam. It is evident that this amount of mechanical effect is a major limit, which cannot be exceeded by the power of the engine.

"What is known as the duty or service of engines varies according to their form and magnitude, the circumstances under which they are worked, and the purposes to which they are applied. In double-acting engines, working without expansion, the coal consumed per nominal horse-power per hour varies from 7 to 12 lbs. An examination of the steam-logs of several government steamers, made a few years since, gave as the average consumption of fuel at that time, of the best class of marine engines, about 8 lbs. per nominal horse-power per hour. Out of fifteen atmospheric engines working at Newcastle-on-Tyne, in 1769 — the date of Watt's earliest discoveries — the yearly *duty* of the poorest was shown to be 3,220,000 lbs., and of the best 7,440,000 lbs. In 1772, Smeaton began his improvements on the atmospheric engine, and raised the duty to 9,450,000, but when Watt, in 1776, had obtained a duty of 21,600,000, Smeaton acknowledged that Watt's engines gave a duty double that of his own. From 1779 to 1798, Watt increased that of his engines from 23,400,000 to 27,000,000. The engine which accomplished the last was under the care of Mr. Murdock, at Cornwall, and was by Mr. Watt pronounced *perfect*. [Mr. Murdock will be remembered as the ingenious producer of a model locomotive heated by a spirit-lamp, which so frightened the village parson upon a dark evening, as it moved rapidly down upon him on the side-walk.] Mr. Watt thought further improvement in the duty of his steam-engine could not be expected. Yet in twenty years afterward the best

engine had attained to an average duty of 40,000,000 lbs., and in forty years it was about 84,000,000 lbs. per year. How impossible, then, for even the most sagacious to foresee the results of mechanical improvement."

COAL CONSUMED.

We now revert again to fuel, or the food of what the men of the Newcastle collieries originally called the "Iron Horse." For this home of the Stephensons, near the close of the thirteenth century Henry III. gave a charter, granting license to the burgesses of Newcastle to dig for coal. In 1281 — just five hundred years before George Stevenson was born, at Wylam Colliery — Newcastle is said to have had a considerable trade in this article, and about this time the use of coal had commenced in London, by smiths, brewers, dyers, soap-boilers, etc. A notion got abroad that the smoke was highly injurious to the public, and in 1316, on petition of parliament his majesty Edward I. issued a proclamation prohibiting its use, on the ground of its being an intolerable nuisance. Notwithstanding this, and the fact that more rigorous means were resorted to, its use continued progressively to gain ground. Since the reign of Charles I., the use of coal in London has been universal, to the exclusion of nearly all other articles of fuel. The coals of Britain are almost wholly bituminous, similar to the coals taken out of the Western Alleghanies and generally mined in the Mississippi Valley. The anthracite coal of Pennsylvania is nearly pure carbon, igniting with some difficulty, and giving out intense heat during combustion. It is almost exclusively used in the cities and towns of the Northern Atlantic States, and wherever wood is not cheaper, in that part of the Union. Its adaptation for use in blast furnaces makes it immensely valuable to the great home interest in iron, of the Keystone State; and it yields a rich revenue to her citizens from the demand for it in the large manufacturing and commercial districts of the Eastern States, while it is in growing request wherever in the South and West a cleaner fuel is preferred to the smoky and sooty coals of the great central valley. Strangely enough, it was scarcely known to exist in this country fifty years ago, and now the tonnage engaged in transporting it — to a minor extent by the old canals — on the railroads of the East is of enormous magnitude, as will appear from the reports of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad, the Lehigh Valley, the Delaware and Lackawanna, the New Jersey Central, the Pennsylvania Central, and other roads. A half century ago, this coal, as discovered in Ireland, and in South Wales, was considered to be incombustible refuse and was thrown away, but now it is there thought to be of the very highest value for furnace purposes.

In this running and brief history of coal, we not only discover

the *food* for our iron horse developed from the great store-houses of nature in a rapidly increasing measure, just as the creature is developed into a perfect life, but we also discover the *work* it is being called upon to perform. Its family is growing by thousands a year, while its habitat, the railroads, are multiplying in endless ratio. The iron steamers of the sea, too, and of the great inland routes of commerce, are, and are to be, insatiable in their demands for this great generator of strength for iron arms and sinews. Europeans, if not Americans, are *demonstrating* that iron steamships can carry much cheaper than sailing vessels, the time taken for trips considered, because vessels propelled by steam are gradually superseding sailing vessels. It is probable that coal will ere long be included among those articles that are reckoned as contraband of war. Now that steam is destined to play an important part in naval warfare, the coal by which steam is produced is certainly entitled to a prominent place among *munitions de guerre*.

Nearly all the coal consumed in London was taken there by coastwise vessels from Newcastle and elsewhere forty years ago (1832), while within that period the transportation into London, by railways alone, has grown to be equal to that taken by vessels, and the amount carried by the latter is fifty per cent. in excess of what it was then; meantime, its average price has not increased there. In this no mention is made of the tonnage required on railways for distributing coal to the manufacturing and other districts of Britain. Herein may be seen outlines of a future traffic, huge in proportions, yet to be acquired by the railroads of the Western States of the Union, not to name others.

The importation into the United States of what has been for many years known on the Atlantic coast as "Liverpool coal" has always been considerable; so late as 1865 the amount was 134,000 tons; an ugly fact in view of our greater supplies. The productive coal measures of the United States exceed those of all the rest of the world, as at present known, and the greatest fields of coal in the Union are in the districts of the Mississippi Valley, already pointed out.

Coal, for most purposes, is much better than wood; but, in fact, the two, although in appearance so different, are, in their ultimate composition, very nearly allied. They both have for their basis or chief ingredient the substance called by the chemists *carbon*, and their chief other ingredient, the substance called *hydrogen*, which, when separated, exists in the form of gas. The hydrogen is easily driven away or volatilized from either coal or wood, by heating in a close place; and when it is caught and preserved, it forms the gas now used to light the streets and buildings of our cities and larger towns. What remains of coal after being so treated is the substance called *coke*, referred to in this article as used in running locomotives on the English railways; and what

remains of wood, similarly treated, is the substance called *charcoal;* both being nearly pure carbon, but differing as to the states of compactness. This kindred nature of coal and wood does not surprise us when the fact is known that much of our coal is really transformed wood; many coal-mines being evidently the remains of antediluvian forests, swept together in the course of terrestrial changes, and afterward solidified to the state now seen. The species of the plants or trees which formed them are often quite apparent. The extensive beds of peat moss or turf, now existing on the surface of the earth consist chiefly of vegetable remains in an early stage of change, which finally terminates in the formation of coal.

The phenomenon of common fire or combustion is merely the fuel being chemically dissolved in the air of the atmosphere. If the fuel has nothing volatile in it, as is true of pure carbon, and nearly true of coke and charcoal, it burns with the appearance of red-hot stones; but if there be an ingredient, as hydrogen, which on being heated, readily assumes the form of air, that ingredient dilates before burning, and in the act produces the more bulky incandescence called flame.

The two great purposes which combustion serves to man are to give light and heat. By the former he may be said to lengthen considerably the duration of his natural existence; for he converts a portion of the almost useless night into what, for many ends, serves him as well as day; and by the latter, besides converting winter into any climate—within doors—which he desires, he is enabled to effect most important mutations in many of the substances which nature offers for his use; and since the invention of the steam-engine, he makes heat perform a great and constantly increasing proportion of the work of society. From these considerations may be perceived the importance of having fire at command; and as the cheapest means of commanding fire, of having abundance of coal. By it our dwellings are lighted and heated, and thus made more comfortable; with it the steam-engine may be fed, labor lifted from our shoulders and taken from our hands, and we may be enabled comfortably to go with railroad and steamer speed to the ends of the earth.

From an admirable article by Robert Hunt, F. R. S., we make the following extract on

"COAL AS A RESERVOIR OF POWER."

"The sun, according to the philosophy of the day, is the great store-house of force. All the grand natural phenomena are directly dependent upon the influence of energies which are poured forth without intermission from the central star of our system. Under the influences of light, heat, actinism, and electricity, plants and animals are produced, live and grow, in all their

infinite variety. Those physical powers, or, as they were formerly called, those imponderable elements, have their origin in one or other of those mysterious zones which envelope the orb of day, and become evident to us only when mighty cyclones break them up into dark spots. Is it possible to account for the enormous amount of energy which is constantly being developed in the sun? This question may be answered by saying that chemical changes of the most intense activity are discovered to be forever progressing, and that to these changes we owe the development of all the physical powers with which we are acquainted. In our laboratory we establish, by mechanical disturbance, some chemical phenomenon, which becomes evident to our senses by the heat and light which are developed, and we find associated with them the principal which can set up chemical change and promote electrical manifestations, We have produced combustion, say, of a metal, or of a metallic compound, and we have a flame of a color which belongs especially to the substance which is being consumed. We examine a ray of light produced by that flame by passing it through a prism, and this analysis informs us that colored bands, having a fixed angle of refraction, are constant for that especial metal. Beyond this, research acquaints us with the fact that, if the ray of light is made to pass through the vapor of the substance which gives color to the flame, the lines of the spectrum which were chormatic become dark and colorless.

SUNSHINE AND COAL BEDS.

"We trap a ray of sunlight, and we refract it by means of a spectroscope, when we detect the same lines as those which we have discovered in our artificial flame. We pursue this very interesting discovery, and we find that several metals which give color to flame, and produce certain lines, when subjected to spectrum analysis, are to be detected in the rays of the sun. Therefore our inference is, that some substances, similar to the terrestrial bodies, with which we are familiar, are actually undergoing a change in the sun, analogous to those changes which we call combustion; and, more than this, we argue that the high probability is, that all solar energies are developed under those conditions of chemical change—that, in fact, the sun is burning, and while solar matter is changing its form, Force is rendered active, and as ray-power passes off into space as light, heat, etc., to do its work upon distant worlds, and these forms of Force are expended in doing the work of development *on* those worlds. This idea—theory—call it what you may—involves of necessity the waste of energy in the sun, and we must concede the possibility of the blazing sun's gigantic mass becoming eventually a globe of dead ashes, unless we can comprehend some method by which energy can be again restored to the inert matter. Certain it

is that the sun has been shining thousands of years, and its influence on this earth we know to have been the production of organized masses, absorbing the radiant energies, in volumes capable of measurement. On this earth, for every equivalent of heat developed, a fixed equivalent of matter has changed its form; and so likewise is it with regard to the other forces. On the sun, in like manner, every cubic mile of sunshine represents the change of form of an equivalent of solar matter, and that equivalent of matter is no longer capable of supplying Force, unless by some conditions, beyond our grasp at present, it takes up again that which it has lost. That something of this kind must take place is certain. The sun is *not burning out.* After the lapse of thousands of years we have the most incontrovertible evidence that the light of to-day is no less brilliant now than it was when man walked amid the groves of Eden. We may venture farther back into the arcana of time, and say that the sun of the past summer (1872) has shone with splendor equal to the radiant power which, myriads of ages ere man appeared on this planet, stimulated the growth of those luxuriant forests which perished to form those vast beds from which we derive our coal. Not a ray the less is poured out in any hour of sunshine; not a grain-weight of matter is lost from the mass of the sun. If either the sunshine were weakened, or the weight of the vast globe diminished, the planets would vary in their physical conditions, and their orbits would be changed. There is no evidence that either one or the other has resulted. Let us see if we can guess at any process by which this stability of the solar system is maintained.

"It was first shown by Faraday, in a series of experimental investigations which may be regarded as the most beautiful example of inductive science with which the world has been favored since Bacon promulgated his new philosophy, that the quantity of electricity contained in a body was exactly the quantity which was necessary to decompose that body. For example, in a voltaic battery—of zinc and copper plates—a certain fixed quantity of electricity is eliminated by the oxidation of a portion of the zinc. If, to produce this effect, the oxygen of a given measure of water —say a drop—is necessary, the electricity developed will be exactly that which is required to separate the gaseous elements of a drop of water from each other. As equivalent of electricity is developed by the oxidation of an equivalent of zinc, and that electricity is required for the decomposition of an equivalent of water, or the same quantity of electricity would be equal to the power of effecting the re-combination of oxygen and hydrogen, into an equivalent of water. The law which has been so perfectly established for electricity is found to be true of the other physical forces. By the combustion—which is a condition of oxidation—of an equivalent of carbon, or of any body susceptible of this

change of state, exact volumes of light and heat are liberated. It is theoretically certain that these equivalents of light and heat are exactly the quantities necessary for the formation of the substance from which those energies have been derived. That which takes place in terrestrial phenomena is, it is highly probable, constantly taking place in solar phenomena. Chemical changes, or disturbances analogous to them, of vast energy, are constantly progressing in the sun, and thus is maintained that unceasing outpour of sunshine which gladdens the earth, and illumines all the planets of our system. Every solar ray is a bundle of powerful forces; light, the luminous life-maintaining energy, giving color to all things; heat, the calorific power which determines the conditions of all terrestrial matter; actinism, peculiarly the force which produces all photographic phenomena; and electricity regulating the magnetic condition of this globe. Combined in action, these solar radiations carry out the conditions necessary to animal and vegetable organization, in all their varieties, and *create* out of a chaotic mass forms of beauty rejoicing in life.

"To confine our attention to the one subject before us. Every person knows that, to grow a tree or shrub healthfully, it must have plenty of sunshine. In the dark we may force a plant to grow, but it forms no woody matter, it acquires no color; even in shade it grows slowly and weak. In sunshine it glows with color, and its frame is strengthened by the deposition of woody matter eliminated from the carbonic acid of the air in which it grows. A momentary digression will make one point here more clear. Men and animals live by consuming the products of the vegetable world. The process of supporting life by food is essentially one of combustion. The food is burnt in the system, developing that heat which is necessary for life, and the living animal rejects, with every expiration, the combinations, principally carbonic acid, which result from this combustion. This carbonic acid is inhaled by the plant; and, by its vital power, excited by sunshine, it is decomposed; the carbonic forms the ligneous structure of the plant, and the oxygen is liberated to renew the healthful condition of the atmosphere. Here we see a sequence of changes analogous to those which have been shown to be a law of electricity."

HOW WOOD AND COAL ARE DEVELOPED.

Every equivalent of matter changing form in the sun sends forth a measured volume of sunshine, charged with the organizing powers as potential energies. These meet with the terrestral matter which has the function of living, and they expend themselves in the labor of producing a quantity of wood, which represents the equivalent of matter which has changed form in the sun. The

light, heat, chemical and electrical power of the sushine have produced a certain quantity of wood, and these physical energies have been absorbed—used up—in the production of that quantity. Now, we learn that a cube of wood is the result of a fixed measure of sunshine; common experience teaches us that, if we ignite that wood, it gives out in burning, light and heat; while a little examination proves the presence of actinism and electricity in its flame. Philosophy teaches us that the powers set free in the burning of that cube of wood, are exactly those which were required for its growth, and that, for the production of it, a definite equivalent of matter changed its form on a globe ninety millions of miles distant from us.

Myriads of ages before man appeared—the monarch of this world—the sun was doing its work. Vast forests grew as they now grow, especially in the wide spread swamps of the tropics, and, decaying, gathered into thick mats of humus-like substance. Those who have studied all the conditions of a peat-morass, will remember how the ligneous matter loses its woody structure in depth—depth here representing time—and how at the bottom a bituminous or coaly matter is not unfrequently formed. Some such process as this, continued through long ages, at length produced those extensive beds of coal which are so distinguishingly a feature of the English and American coal-fields. At a period in geological time, when an Old Red Sandstone land was washed by ocean waves highly charged with carbonic acid, in which existed multitudinous animals, whose work in Nature was to aid in building up mases of lime-stone rock, there prevailed a teeming vegetation from which have been derived all the coal-beds of the British Isles. Our space will not allow of any inquiry into the immensity of time required for the growth of the forests necessary for the production of even a single seam of coal. Suffice it to say, that within one coal-field, we may discover coal beds to the depth of 6,000 feet from the present surface. The section of such a coal-field will show us coal and sandstone, or shale, alternating again and again—a yard or two of coal and hundreds of feet of shale or sandstone—until we come to the present surface, every one of those deeply-buried coal-beds having been at one time a forest, growing under the full power of a brilliant sun, the result of solar forces, produced then, as now, by chemical phenomena taking place in the sun itself. Every cubic yard of coal in every coal-bed, is the result of a very slow, but constant change of a mass of vegetable matter; that change being analogous to the process of rotting in a large heap of succulent plants. The change has been so slow, and continued under a constantly increasing pressure, that but few of the gaseous constituents have escaped, and nearly all those physical forces which were used in the task of producing the woody matter of the plant have been held prisoners

in the vegetable matter which constitutes coal. How vast, then must be the store of power which is preserved in the coal deposits of these islands!

We are now rasing from our coal-pits nearly one hundred and ten millions of tons of coal annually. Of this quantity we are exporting to our colonial possessions and foreign parts about ten million tons, reserving nearly a hundred million tons of coal for our home consumption. Not many less than one hundred thousand steam boilers are in constant use in these islands, producing steam—to blow the blast for smelting the iron ore; to urge the mill for rolling, crushing, and cutting, with giant power; to twirl the spindle and to urge the shuttle. For every purpose, from rolling cyclopean masses of metal into form to weaving silky textures of the most filmy fineness, steam is used, and this steam is an exact representative of the coal employed, a large allowance being made for the imperfections of human machinery. This requires a little explanation. Coal is a compound of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, the last two elements existing in quantities so small, as compared with the carbon, that they may be rejected from our consideration. The heat which we obtain in burning the coal is almost all derived from the carbon; the hydrogen in burning produces some heat, but for our purpose it is sufficient to confine attention to the carbon only.

THE POWER OF COAL.

One pound of pure coal yields, in combining with oxygen in combustion, *theoretically*, an energy equal to the power of lifting 10,808,000 pounds one foot high. The quantity of heat necessary to raise a pound of water one degree will raise 772 pounds one foot. A pound of coal burning should yield 14,000 units of heat, or 772x14,000=10,808,000 pounds, as above. Such is the theoretical value of a pound of pure coal. Many of our coal seams are about a yard in thickness; several important seams are much thicker than this, and one well-known seam, the thick coal of South Staffordshire, is ten yards in thickness. This, however, concerns us no further than that it is useful in conveying to the mind some idea of the enormous reservoir of power which is buried in our coal formations. One square yard of coal from a yard thick seam—that is, in fact, a cubic yard of coal—weighs about 2,240 pounds avoirdupois; the reserved energy in that cube of coal is equal to lifting 1,729,200 pounds one foot high. We are raising every year about 110,000,000 tons of coal from our coal-beds, each ton of coal being about a square yard. The heat of that coal is equal to a mechanical lifting power which it is scarcely possible to convey to the mind in anything approach-

ing to its reality. If we say it is 190,212,000 millions, we merely state an incomprehensible number. We may do something more than this, if we can convey some idea of the magnitude of the mass of coal which is raised annually in these islands.

The diameter of this globe is 7,926 miles, or 13,880,760 yards; therefore, the coal raised in 1870 would make a solid bar more than eight yards wide and one yard thick, which would pass from east to west through the earth at the equator. Suppose such a mass should be in a state of ignition, we can imagine the intensity of its heat, and its capability, if employed in converting water into steam, of exerting the vast force which we have endeavored to indicate. It was intimated last year in the House of Commons, by a member of the coal commission, that the decision of that body, after a long and laborious inquiry, would be that there existed in our coal-fields a supply for about one thousand years at our present rate of consumption. We have therefore to multiply the above computation by 1,000 to arrive at any idea of the reserve power of our British coal-fields. What must it have been ere yet our coal deposits were disturbed! At the time of the Roman occupation coal was used in this country. In the ruins of Roman Uriconium coal has been found. Certainly up to the present time a quantity of not less than three thousand million tons of coal has been dug out of our carboniferous deposits and consumed. All this enormous mass of matter has been derived from vegetable organizations which have been built up by sunshine. The sun-rays which compelled the plants to grow were used by the plant, absorbed, imprisoned in the cells, and held there as an essential ingredient of the woody matter. The heat, light, actinism, and electricity, which are developed when we burn a lump of coal, represent exactly the quantity of those forces which were necessary to the growth of the vegetable matter from which that coal was formed. The sunshine of infinitely remote ages becomes the useful power of the present day.

Let it not, however, be supposed that we employ all the heat which is available in our coal. All our appliances, even the very best, are so defective that we lose far more than we use. A pound of pure coal should evaporate thirteen pounds of water; in practice a pound of coal does not evaporate four pounds, even in the most perfectly constructed steam boilers, with the most complete steam engines, such as have been constructed for pumping water for the Chelsea and the other water-works upon the Thames.

Numerous attempts have been made to burn our coal so as to secure a more effective result than this. Still, with the best we allow more than one-half of the heat latent in the coal to escape us. The subtle element eludes our grasp—our charms are powerless to chain the sprite; he will not be bound to labor for us, but

passes off into space, regardless of the human Prospero, whose wand of science he derides.

In conclusion, our philosophy has enabled us to determine the heat value of our coal fields, and to prove that all this heat has a solar origin. Our science has shown us that, although we can eliminate all this heat, we can not use it. There is an immense quantity constantly passing into space as radiant heat which we can not retain.

The circle of action between the vegetable and the animal world is a beautiful and a remarkable provision. The animal burns carbon and sends into the air carbonic acid (a compound of carbon and oxygen); the vegetable breathes that carbonic acid and decomposes it; the carbon is retained and the oxygen liberated in purity, to maintain the life and fire-supporting principles of the atmosphere. Changes similar to these may be constantly going forward in the sun, and producing those radiations which are poured forth in volumes, far beyond the requirements of all the planets of our system. Although there is probably some circle of action analogous to that which exists upon this earth maintaining the permanency of the vegetable and animal world, still there must be a waste of energy, which must be resupplied to the sun.

May it not be that Sir Isaac Newton's idea—that the comets traversing space gather up the waste heat of the solar system, and eventually falling into the sun, restores its power—is nearer the truth than the more modern hypothesis, that meteorites are incessantly raining an iron shower upon the solar surface, and by their mechanical impact reproducing the energy as constantly as it is expended.

THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORAL COLLEGE, IN 1876,

Will comprise three hundred and sixty-nine members, as follows:

1. New York	35	21. Texas	8
2. Pennsylvania	29	22. South Carolina	7
3. Ohio	22	23. Maine	7
4. Illinois	21	24. Connecticut	6
5. Indiana	15	25. Arkansas	6
6. Missouri	15	26. California	6
7. Massachusetts	13	27. Vermont	5
8. Kentucky	12	28. New Hampshire	5
9. Tennessee	12	29. Kansas	5
10. Virginia	11	30. West Virginia	5
11. Georgia	11	31. Minnesota	5
12. Michigan	11	32. Rhode Island	4
13. Iowa	11	33. Florida	4
14. North Carolina	10	34. Delaware	3
15. Alabama	10	35. Nebraska	3
16. Wisoonsin	10	36. Oregon	3
17. New Jersey	9	37. Nevada	3
18. Maryland	8	38. Colorado	3
19. Louisiana	8		
20. Mississippi	8	Total	369

THE GRANGERS.

In the year 1867 a movement was inaugurated by the farmers of the West, which bade fair to change the whole social and political face of the country. In an incredibly short time the organization which was formed numbered its members by millions, and it can safely be said that one-fourth of all the voters in the country belonged to the Grange. Such sudden growth must be ascribed to the magnitude of the evils which it was intended to redress, or to the benefits which were to be derived therefrom. As money is the American idol, it is to the condition of the pockets of the members or originators of the society that we naturally look in seeking an explanation of so extensive and general a movement, and there is no necessity for going farther.

In all the large countries of the world agriculture is the chief branch of industry, and in Europe the stability of a nation may be said to depend upon the extent of its agricultural pursuits France, which is in reality the richest nation in the world, although England possesses more nominal wealth, was a century ago the poorest. This was owing to the fact that all the land was held by a few nobles and the king, who farmed out the revenue and lived up to the saying of Louis XIV, that "the King was the State." Then came that terrible reaction, the reaction of ten centuries of oppression, in which all who were born of noble blood were beheaded or compelled to leave the country. In 1793 the whole country had been confiscated and was then divided equally between the inhabitants of the country who chose to dwell upon the land assigned to them. The law of primogeniture was repealed and on the death of a land owner his real property must be distributed among all the children, male and female, thus preventing the repetition of the condition of the country in 1789, or that of Great Britain to-day, and giving to every man his farm.

Here is the secret of the recuperative power of France. With a population as large as that of this country east of the Rocky Mountains, but an area less than that of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and Iowa combined, and a soil less fertile than that of those states, she is able to raise her own provisions besides raising and making wine for the whole world, which is exchanged for whatever can be grown and imported at a less cost than it can be produced at home. But France has to feed her immense cities, where manufactures of all kinds are carried on to enormous extent, and thus by a mutual intercourse and exchange of commodities in the same country, the prosperity of the nation is assured.

We often hear of emigration from the overcrowded nations of Europe, but where the energies of the population are divided rightly there is no over-crowding. That term is never applied to France, nor is there any emigration properly so called from

that country. But when we examine the condition of the United States, we find none of those elements which make France wealthy and strong. The five states mentioned above contain almost exactly one-fourth the population of France. The manufactures necessary to supply so sparsely settled a country are very limited, and are furnished from distant states. The three southern New England states can furnish manufactures to the whole section, and barely have sufficient labor to keep them employed continually.

What then is the condition of things, how has it come about, and how can it be changed, are the questions to be answered.

The pursuits of the West are wholly agricultural, and only one form at that, stock raising hardly entering in as a branch of employment. This is also true of the South, the West confining itself almost exclusively to the culture of grain, the South to that of cotton. The employment of the Northeast is manufactures *combined* with agriculture and commerce. The result is the Northeastern section of the country is rich and prosperous, the rest of the country is comparatively poor and wanting in many of the necessary constituents of prosperity. This, then, is the condition of things. How has it come about?

We may say with truth that the railroad is to blame. Previous to the introduction of this agency Indiana was a howling wilderness, and but for it all the country west of the Mississippi would be so to-day. Formerly all transportation was performed by cattle and horses, and it would have been an impossibility to ship grain from Illinois to Massachusetts, or even New York, but now it can be carried from St. Louis to Portland for less than it could be sent from New York to Boston fifty years ago. No sooner were the railroads commenced than the demand came up from the West for their construction to that region. Emigration from the East set in, and thus, in a few years, 20,000,000 souls have taken possession of land enough to sustain 200,000,000.

In order to get the railroads, states granted lands, counties made loans, towns gave bonds, and millions, yes, billions of money were sunk in building roads for the West by wealthy capitalists.

At last all the railroads, yes, twice as many as were needed, were built. Then the counties and the towns were called upon to pay the interest and principal of the bonds and loans they had given. The people attempted to compel the courts to declare the roads strictly private corporations, and the aid they had extended unconstitutional. But they were unsuccessful. The courts decided the railroads to be *quasi* public corporations.

THE PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY.

In consequence of this condition of affairs in 1867, the idea of organizing that portion of the American people engaged in agricultural pursuits into a society for the furthurance of their own

interests on some plan similar to the Trades Unions, began to be discussed among a few men from different portions of the country, gathered at Washington, D. C. The result was that in December of that year, they, together with a few others whom they induced to join them, organized themselves into what they termed The National Grange, of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry. Their objects, as announced, were to unite the farmers together for mutual protection, and enable them to exert an influence in public affairs they had never enjoyed, and could not hope to enjoy without such union. The ideas of self culture and social enjoyment were also made a part of the good the members were expecting to realize from this association. Again, it was hoped that by means of such a combination a powerful influence could be exerted on the markets for farm products, while at the same time farm implements, and in fact all farm supplies, could be bought and distributed at a considerable saving. Thus early the principle of co-operation, which has won so many and such brilliant triumphs in England wthin the last thirty years, became one of the leading features of the move. After struggling forward for four years, making very little, if any, real progress, in 1872 it received an impetus which suddenly brought it into prominence as one of the greatest social movements of the age. Several causes contributed to this result. The high prices charged for freight from the northwest to the seaboard for farm products, by the railroads, was found to absorb almost the whole price received therefor, so that in some portions of Iowa farmers were even burning corn for fuel rather than ship it to market. At the same time in many localities farmers were called upon to pay high taxes, considerable portions of which went to pay principal and interest on railroad bonds which had been issued in aid of the roads in the hope that by means of them they would be enabled to enjoy a better market for their products. To be called upon to pay principal and interest on these bonds while suffering complete prostration of their business consequent on the exorbitant rates for freight charged by these same roads, produced a wide-spread feeling of discontent among the farmers who became ready to embrace any project that seemed to promise relief. Add to this the revelations of wholesale fraud in the construction of the railroads, as shown in the Credit Mobilier investigations in the winter of 1872–3, coupled with official corruption in Congress and State Legislatures, and one can readily see how the Grange movement should have so suddenly assumed such gigantic proportions. A single glance at the official reports of the society, taken in connection with the important events of the times will be sfficient to explain the whole phenomena. Organized in Dec. 1867, no decided effort was made to push the new Order for at least three months, and even then the success was not decidedly flattering. During the whole of 1868 only ten new granges

were organized. In 1869 thirty-nine more were brought into being, and in 1870 an equal number; 1871 seemed to have been a little better. In this year are reported one hundred and five new granges, making a total of one hundred and ninety-three subordinate granges established in a period of four years. From this point the growth was rapid. In 1872 no less than 1,105 new subordinate granges were instituted, and this rate of growth, in geometrical progression was continued until, at the annual meeting of the national grange in February, 1874, there were reported no less than 16,400 organizations with an average membership of fifty persons to each grange.

The questions which force themselves on the attention of every thoughtful person are, will the grange survive a brief period of existence and become one of the permanent institutions of our country? and, will it succeed in effecting the reforms at which it aims? We shall not attempt to answer either of these questions, but certain it is that it will require the exercise of all the wisdom possessed by its leaders to steer it clear of the dangers that await it, and correct the mistakes which were inseperable from its rapid growth and the excitement produced by the issues with which it has had to deal.

THE NATIONAL GRANGE.

FROM THE SECRETARY'S REPORT, NOV., 1875.

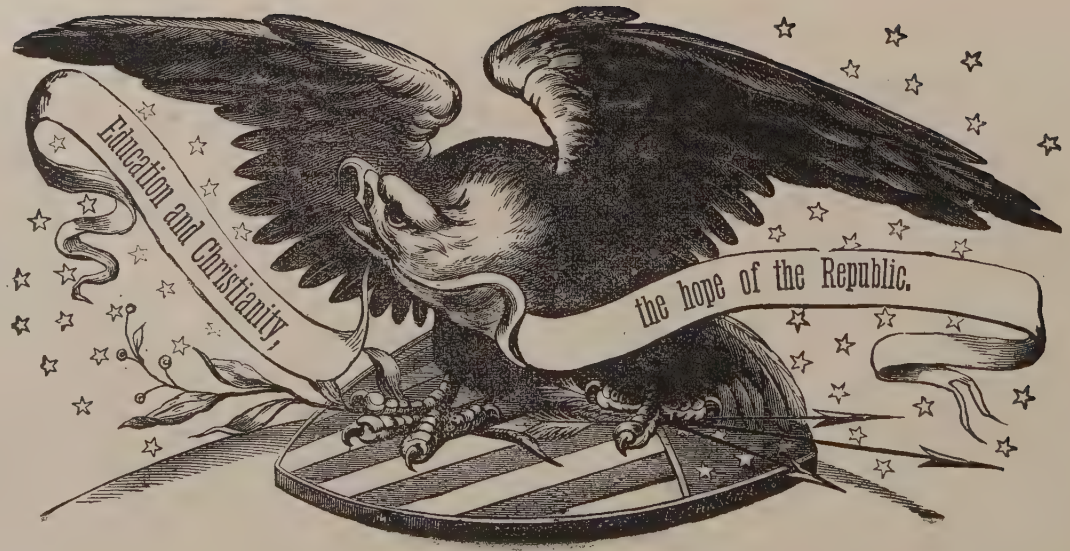
In the history of organization our Order is the greatest achievement of modern times. The Masonic Order, consisting of blue Lodges, chapters, commanderies, and other branches of its organization, numbers twelve thousand nine hundred and thirty (12,930) on the entire globe. The Odd Fellows number seven thousand and fifty-one Lodges, encampments, etc., giving a total of nineteen thousand nine hundred and eighty-one in the whole world, and those Orders are from thirty to one hundred years old; while at the outside we have but three years' growth, and have issued twenty-four thousand two hundred and ninety charters, confined to the United States alone.

It is quite reasonable to suppose that many of the Granges organized under the excitement of last year should be weak, but our records at this date show only 686 that have consolidated, suspended, or had their charters revoked since the first introduction of the order.

State Secretaries this year report a membership of 762,263, while the increase of new Granges for the past month has been 92.

The total amount of moneys received in the Secretary's office and deposited in the fiscal agencies during the past three years is, in rough numbers, about $350,000, exceeding the united paid-up capital of all the purely agricultural societies in the United States for the past fifty years, or, in fact, since they first had an existence.

THRIFTY AMERICAN FARMER'S STOCK YARD.


Education and Christianity,
the hope of the Republic.

INFORMATION FOR EVERYBODY.

STATISTICS OF THE GLOBE.

THE earth is inhabited by about 1300 millions of inhabitants, viz:

360,000,000 of the Caucassian race;
550,000,000 of the Mongolian;
190,000,000 of the Ethiopian;
200,000,000 of the Malay races, and
1,000,000 of the American Indian.

All these respectively speak 3,064 languages and possess 1,000 different religions.

The amount of deaths per annum is 33,333,333, or 91,954 per day; 3,730 per hour; 60 per minute, or one per second. This loss is compensated by an equal number of births.

The average duration of life throughout the globe is thirty-three years. One-fourth of its population dies before the seventh year, and one-half before the seventeenth. Out of 10,000 persons only one reaches his hundredth year; only one in 500 his eightieth; and only one in 100 his sixty-fifth.

Married people live longer than unmarried ones, and a tall man is likely to live longer than a short one. Until the fiftieth year, women have a better chance of life than men; but beyond that period the chances are equal.

Sixty-five persons out of one thousand, marry. The months of June and December are those in which marriages are most frequent.

Children born in spring are generally stronger than those born in other seasons.

Births and deaths chiefly occur in the night.

The number of men able to bear arms is but one-eighth of the population.

ESTIMATED POPULATION OF THE OLD AND NEW WORLD.

Europe	280,000,000
Asia, including Islands	750,000,000
Africa, estimated from	100 to 200,000,000
America	69,000,000
Australia and Islands	2,000,000
Polynesia, estimate	1,500,000

NEGROES IN AMERICA.

It is estimated that there are some 14,000,000 persons of African descent on this continent. In the United States they number 4,500,000; Brazil 4,000,000; Cuba and Porto Rico, 1,500,000; South and Central American Republics, 1,200,000; Hayti, 1,350,000; British Possessions, 800,000; French, 250,000; Dutch and Mexican, 400,000.

AMERICAN MAN OF WAR.

OUR IMPORTS AND THEIR COST.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics on Commerce and Navigation furnishes the following statement of the value and duty on the principal articles entered into consumption in the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1871:

Articles.	*Value.*	*Duty.*
Animals, living, of all kinds	$5,287,669 12	$1,165,533 83
Articles worn by men, women, children, of whatever material, made up in whole or part by hand, not otherwise specified	249,519 00	87,331 65
Beer, ale and porter	1,154,254 98	434,521 63
Books, periodicals, &c., print. and blank	1,706,304 71	426,576 20
Brass and manuf. of	54,384 17	10,889 43
Bricks and tiles	76,866 59	16,088 97
Bristles	721,518 00	87,214 28
Brushes	222,188 09	88,875 23
Butter	1,091,374 87	193,720 50
Buttons and button molds	1,299,895 75	389,968 73
Candles and tapers, all kinds	5,891 65	1,088 94
Chalk of all kinds	18,367 00	37,487 00
Cheese	376,395 37	100,530 07
Chemicals, dyes, drugs and medicines	12,979,661 85	4,640,055 94
Chicory, root and gr'd	70,495 00	116,120 82
Chocolate, cocoa, &c.	346,210 86	74,583 10
Clay and fullers' earth	106,527 00	54,917 04
Clocks, watches and watch materials	3,457,261 21	804,840 71
Coal and culm of coal	1,144,528 34	543,257 88
Coffee	29,428,698 27	10,069,098 77
Copper and manuf. of	765,186 27	331,703 68
Cork and manuf. of	237,549 52	100,180 49
Cotton, manuf. of	26,587,994 91	10,773,832 48
Diamonds, gems, &c.	2,351,963 25	235,234 73
Earthenware, china	4,632,355 21	1,915,109 81
Embroideries of cotton, silk, wool, not otherwise specified	2,565,914 00	898,069 90
Fancy articles, perfumery, &c.	3,798,816 97	1,718,583 09
Fire-crackers and fireworks	170,264 25	196,929 80
Fish of all kinds	2,066,832 70	660,225 34
Flax and manuf. of (linens, &c.)	19,255,959 55	6,475,953 72
Fruits of all kinds	6,872,741 36	3,428,097 72
Furs and manuf. of	2,194,462 58	434,972 72
Ginger, root, ground and preserved	171,182 51	79,411 70
Glass and manuf. of	4,450,724 68	2,472,412 50
Gold and silver, manufacturers of, &c.	223,277 07	77,082 44
Gums, arabic, copal, mastic, myrrh, shellac, &c.	422,833 06	221,102 41
Gutta-percha, crude, and manuf. of	16,173 00	5,109 90
Hair of alpaca goat, &c., and manuf. of	34,559 70	25,003 13
Hair and manuf. of (hair-cloth, &c.)	538,942 73	131,202 58
Hair, human, and mannfactures of	535,852 00	149,608 00
Hats and bonnets of hair, straw, chip, &c.	658,380 58	253 352 24
Hemp and manuf. of	8,013,364 43	1,71ı,009 47
Hides and skins	13,431,781 27	1,343,178 14
Honey	53,119 91	17,071 50
Hops	12,811 00	5,044 20
India-rubber and manufacturers of	2,044,936 95	361,365 31
Instruments, mathematical, philosophical, &c.	15.519 00	3,521 20
Ink and ink powders	85,823 21	30,038 12

Articles.	*Value.*	*Duty.*
Iron, manuf. of	31,852,034 88	13,766,121 32
Steel and manuf of	11,404,084 85	4,892,562 63
Ivory and manuf. of	174,942 00	20,379 70
Jet and jewelry, real and imitation	1,322,266 67	374,742 03
Lead and manuf. of	3,837,363 93	1,870,669 54
Leather and manuf. of	10,552,155 34	3,839,679 50
Macaroni and vermicelli	80,478 80	28,167 59
Marble, granite, stone and manuf. of	764,323 10	396,964 06
Matts, cocoa, coir, dunnage, &c., and matting	564,239 85	162,632 36
Meats, eggs, game, poultry, &c.	1,128,395 84	240,612 77
Metals, bronze, nickel, &c., and manuf. of, not elsewhere specified	240,575 85	68,411 85
Mineral waters	34,918 13	22,934 88
Music, printed, bound or unbound	47,547 00	9,509 40
Musical instruments and music strings	842,507 98	253,311 55
Nuts, almonds, cocoa, filberts, walnuts, &c.	1,196,779 44	592,270 63
Oil-cloths for floors	63,406 55	27,840 31
Oils, fixed or expressed:		
Castor	20,240 49	29,313 62
Flaxseed or linseed	24,814 49	14,122 57
Neats-foot and other animal	20,155 00	4,031 00
Olive, in casks	111,453 00	34,703 13
Olive, in bottles	257,868 08	142,475 75
Palm and cocoanut	87,288 40	8,728 84
Seal and whale	183,751 38	26,882 45
All other fixed oils	115,479 66	38,776 46
Total	$821,050 50	$299,093 82
Oils, volatile or essential:		
Anise	16,355 00	5,237 50
Bergamot	93,260 00	30,591 58
Citronella	13,535 00	9,100 85
Orange and lemon	144,505 00	33,809 38
Roses, attar of	46,242 00	15,219 38
All other essential oils	132,415 41	82,403 23
Total	$446,212 41	$176,361 92
Olives	32,458 58	9,737 57
Paintings, statuary, &c., not by American artists	767,160 06	76,716 01
Photographs	43,006 25	8,601 25
Paints and colors:		
White lead	483,392 31	250,135 26
Red lead	73,410 75	38,868 48
Ultramarine blue	115,816 00	33,292 32
Vermillion	43,935 11	10,983 78
All other paints and colors	597,276 84	233,084 75
Total	$1,318,831 01	$566,364 59
Paper and manuf. of	1,895,150 35	544,228 04
Pens, penhold'rs, pencils, crayons, &c.	237,850 47	133,300 86
Pickles, sauces, catsup, &c	431,634 39	151,385 80
Pins, all metallic	60,912 00	21,319 20
Plumbago or black lead	139,954 00	26,564 75
Potatoes	225,972 48	107,985 00
Rice and paddy	1,449,198 50	1,262 197 62
Salt in bulk and bags, cake, &c.	1,158,208 56	1,176,587 37

Articles.	*Value.*	*Duty.*
Seeds, plants, trees, shrubs, &c., &c.:		
Canary	56,952 00	37,776 24
Cardamon	13,932 00	2,778 50
Castor	44,393 00	22,111 80
Flaxseed or linseed	5,977,925 80	724,420 40
Garden, agricultural, &c.	563,536 38	169,006 41
All other kinds of seeds, &c.	159,382 75	64,675 73
Total	$6,818,121 93	$1,020,769 08
Silk and manufactures of:		
Velvets	1,424,123 00	854,473 80
Ribbons	6,979,527 50	4,187,716 50
Dress and piece goods	13,235,849 60	7,941,509 77
Laces, braids, fringes, galloons, &c.,	2,281,239 25	1,368,743 55
All other manuf. of	7,147,512 67	3,613,376 23
Total	$31,068,252 02	$17,965,819 85
Slate and manuf. of	138,865 00	49,671 80
Soap, common, castile, and toilet	299,560 84	147,434 12
Spices:		
Cassia	291,972 26	222,330 25
Cloves	64,547 25	104,197 45
Mustard	114,555 74	80,508 27
Nutmegs	390,175 10	266,415 00
Pepper, black and white	484,635 68	596,020 65
Pimento	55,288 87	111,073 20
Vanilla beans	113,212 00	44,292 00
All other spices	102,100 12	97,574 53
Total	$1,616,467 02	$1,522,411 35
Spirits and wines:		
Brandy	1,261,343 42	1,793,276 85
Spirits from grain and other materials	615,292 85	2,042,029 06
Cordials, liquors, arrack, &c.	58,897 96	88,629 90
Wines of all kinds	5,876,613 14	4,478,973 91
Spirituous compounds	19,125 59	29,168 55
Total	$7,831,272 96	$8,432,078 27
Straw, manufactures of	1,360,323 14	408,018 63
Sponges	113,127 00	22,625 40
Starch, of corn, potatoes or rice	2,555 46	1,339 14
Sugar, &c.:		
Sugar of all kinds	58,382,938 21	29,690,521 58
Confectionery	11,735 06	7,160 38
Syrup of cane juice or melado	2,454,696 40	1,060,975 75
Molasses from sugar cane	10,953,029 02	2,826,462 45
Total	$70,802,398 69	$32,585,120 16
Tea	14,274,488 67	8,322,994 67
Tin, and manuf. of	12,528,612 76	2,846,695 39
Tobacco and manufacture of:		
Leaf, manufactured, stems, and snuff	2,784,155 74	2,342,954 11
Cigars	2,422,552 94	2,458,622 62
Total	$5,206,708 68	$4,801,576 73

Articles.	*Value.*	*Duty.*
Umbrellas, parasols, &c., (not of silk)	94,276 50	47,138 25
Varnish	72,265 56	829,755 50
Vegetables, yams, &c., new and prepared	584,611 22	28,768 33
Vinegar	54,855 06	8,863 22
Wax, and manuf. of	10,870 76	3,157 53
Wheat, grain, flour, meal, &c.:		
Wheat,	245,753 79	43,664 80
Wheat flour	157,805 28	31,561 06
Rye	45,143 75	10,138 76
Barley	3,632,484 78	721,479 80
Oats	290,982 90	72,702 20
Indian corn	100,902 91	10,553 48
All other kinds	911,823 73	167,055 56
Total	$5,424,897 14	$1,057,155 46
Willow or osier, and manufacturers of	245,507 75	83,930 97
Wood and manuf. of:		
Cabinet ware, household furniture, &c.	942,973 37	330,040 69
Boards, plank and scantling	6,555,192 03	1,311,038 41
Rough timber	494,456 45	98,891 28
Other lumber	316,057 64	63,211 53
Fire-wood	202,081 52	40,416 30
All other	207,006 85	56,623 87
Total	$8,807,857 86	1,900,322 05
Wool, and manufactures of wool, and worsted:		
Wool, raw of all kinds	9,906,031 03	4,515,103 72
Cloths	9,187,365 28	6,430,226 41
Shawls	281,669 00	151,052 53
Flannels	7,120 49	5,074 65
Blankets	19,426 95	17,292 93
Hats of wool	131,230 00	81,007 54
Hosiery	537,056 50	309,195
Shirts, drawers and other knit goods	21,729 00	12,559 27
Balmorals	3,465 75	2,690 21
Yarns	284,792 90	231,873 55
Dress goods	21,617,322 94	14,353,853 33
Clothing, ready-made and article of wear	2,249,600 00	1,208,568 22
Bunting	4,167 00	4,898 40
Carpets and carpeting	4,931,621 90	3,320,097 31
All other manuf. of, not otherwise specified	3,583,419 63	2,895,982 29
Total	$52,766,068 37	$33,539,475 93
Zinc, and manuf. of	943,964 63	348,667 20
All other articles	3,412,115 57	291,784 86
Total	$459,597,057 86	$201,985,574 93
Amount entered for direct consumption	270,967,025 96	109,089,585 94
Withdrawn from warehouse for consump'n	188,630,031 90	92,895,988 99
Free of duty	59,162,460 46	----------
Additional and discriminating duty	----------	461,098 39
Aggregate total	$518,759,518 32	$202,446,673 32

DIFFERENCE OF TIME.

When it is 12 o'clock at noon at New York City, it will be morning at all places west of New York, and afternoon at all places east, as in the annexed table:

Place.	*Morning.* H.	M.	S.	*Place.*	*Morning.* H.	M.	S.
Augusta, Ga.	11	28	28	New Orleans, La.	10	55	4
Buffalo, N. Y.	11	40	24	Raleigh, N. C.	11	40	52
Chicago, Ill.	11	6	2	Sacramento, Cal.	8	56	4
Cincinnati, O.	11	18	16	St. Louis, Mo.	10	56	4
Detroit, Mich.	11	23	54	St. Paul, Minn.	10	43	45
Ft. Leavenworth, Kan.	10	37	8	San Francisco, Cal.	8	46	19
Galveston, Tex.	10	46	58	Santa Fe, N. M.	9	51	59
Honolulu, S. I.	6	24	8	Springfield, Ill.	10	57	52
Jackson, Miss.	10	55	32	Toronto, C. W.	11	58	58
Jefferson, Mo.	10	47	52	Utica, N. Y.	11	55	12
Louisville, Ky.	11	14	4	Vera Cruz, Mex.	10	51	50
Mexico, Mex.	10	19	44	Washington, D. C.	11	47	53
Milwaukee, Wis.	11	4	16	Wheeling, W. V.	11	53	16
Mobile, Ala.	11	0	2	Wilmington, N. C.	11	43	21
Nashville, Tenn.	11	8	48	Wilmington, Del.	11	54	12
Natchez, Miss.	10	50	26				

Place.	*Afternoon.* M.	H.	S.	*Place.*	*Afternoon.* M.	H.	S.
Albany, N. Y.	0	1	6	Montreal, L. C.	0	1	44
Augusta, Me.	0	16	44	Paris, France	5	5	26
Berlin, Prussia	5	49	39	Portland, Me.	0	15	10
Boston Mass.	0	11	50	Quebec, L. C.	0	11	0
Constantinople	6	52	0	Rome, Italy	5	45	59
Edinburgh	3	43	21	St. Petersburg	6	57	18
Hamburg, Ger.	5	36	58	Stockholm, Sw.	6	8	18
London	4	55	41	Vienna, Austria	6	1	37

STATISTICS OF RELIGION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The total number of Church organizations upon the 1st of June 1870, were

CHURCH ACCOMMODATION.		VALUE OF CHURCH PROPERTY.	
Baptist (regular)	3,997,116	Baptist (regular)	$39,229,221
Baptist (other)	363,019	Baptist (other)	3,378,977
Roman Catholic	1,990,514	Roman Catholic	60,985 566
Congregational	1,117,212	Congregational	25 069 698
Episcopal	991,051	Episcopal	36,514 549
Lutheran	997,332	Lutheran	14,917,747
Methodist	6 528,209	Methodist	69,854,121
Presbyterian (regular)	2,198 900	Presbyterian (regular)	47,828 722
Presbyterian (other)	499,344	Presbyterian (other)	5,436,524
Total	21.659,562	Aggregate value	$354,429,581

Total number of Church edifices 63,074

A TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES, TERRITORIES, DOMINION OF CANADA AND BRITISH PROVINCES OF NORTH AMERICA.

	Daily.	Tri-W'kly.	Semi-W'kly.	W'kly.	Bi-W'kly.	Semi-M'thly	M'thly	Bi-M'thly	Quarteriy.	Total.
Alabama	9	2		66		1				78
Arkansas	4	2		41			4			51
California	34	3	6	129		2	12		1	187
Connecticut	17		1	51	1	3	13		1	87
Delaware	1		3	13			1			18
District of Columbia	6			12			6		1	25
Florida	1	1	1	21			1			25
Georgia	14	5	7	86		2	9			123
Illinois	38	11	7	371	3	5	58	2	4	499
Indiana	20	3	3	209		3	25		1	264
Iowa	20	5	3	231	1	1	18		1	280
Kansas	14	3		85			8	1	1	112
Kentucky	10	2	5	76			12			105
Louisiana	9	2	3	71			3		2	90
Maine	6	1		48	1	1	9			66
Maryland	9			77			9		1	96
Massachusetts	21	1	13	165	4	5	60	1	10	280
Michigan	13	4		107	1	1	11		2	139
Minnesota	8	5	1	85			5			104
Mississippi	4	5	1	75		2	6			93
Missouri	21	5		227		5	29	1	1	289
Nebraska	7			31		1	7			46
Nevada	7		2	6						15
New Hampshire	7			39		2	6	1	1	56
New Jersey	21		1	98	1	1	16			138
New York	89	3	18	568	2	25	167	2	20	894
North Carolina	8	3	4	43	1	1	5			65
Ohio	25	9	5	306	1	9	53	1	1	411
Oregon	5			25			1		1	32
Pennsylvania	61	2	1	410		7	82	3	8	584
Rhode Island	6		1	18			1			26
South Carolina	5	4	2	42			4		2	59
Tennessee	12	2	1	79		1	9			104
Texas	11	8	7	95			2			123
Vermont	3			39			2			44
Virginia	16	9	8	71		2	11			116
West Virginia	3	1	1	49		1	3			58
Wisconsin	16	2	3	165		6	9			201
	581	102	108	4330	16	99	676	13	59	5983
Territories	13	3	4	50	1	1	1			73
New Brunswick, D. C.	3	1		18	1	1	1		1	26
Nova Scotia, D. C.	3	5		20	1	1	3			32
Ontario, D. C.	21	1	2	166			21	1	1	213
Quebec, D. C.	13	5	7	43			12		1	82
	40	12	9	247	2	2	37	1	3	353
British Colonies	3	1	8	15	2					29
Totals	637	118	129	4642	21	100	715	14	62	6438

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE CIRCULATION OF THE NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES AND DOMINION OF CANADA.

	Daily.	Tri-W'kly.	Semi-W'kly.	W'kly.	Bi-W'kly.	Semi-M'thly	M'thly	Bi. M'thly	Quarterly.	Total.
Alabama	1960	838		944		1500				1070
Arkansas	788	250		652			600			650
California	3387	2500	1067	1308		1500	3519		2000	1846
Connecticut	2160		1080	1632	700	410	10425		1500	3000
Delaware	1488		783	1278			2000			1247
District of Columbia	7275			4260			2500		500	4323
Florida	450		400	635						616
Georgia	2095	876	587	1050		438	3273			1270
Illinois	4333	3294	464	2249	4000	7756	6069	5500	1504	2907
Indiana	2490	450	628	1129		587	4102		3000	1490
Iowa	1102	480	734	983	500		1862		750	1013
Kansas	1539	309		1024			10665	5000	5000	1828
Kentucky	3348	500	1080	1768			2380			1963
Louisiana	3903	400	1000	846			2833		1168	1220
Maine	1496	348		2377	480	720	2763			2257
Maryland	4920			1831			2075		1500	2277
Massachusetts	10436	600	1983	4541	1267	1670	8852	4000	6174	5709
Michigan	2354	1301		1429	800		3318		980	1654
Minnesota	1126	480	225	1124			2056			1121
Mississippi	881	480	4000	719		1968	1179			753
Missouri	4511	2997		1633		7900	3111	1500	1490	2104
Nebraska	910			885		1000	1021			913
Nevada	660		575	493						516
New Hampshire	961			1760		400	6880	1000		2194
New Jersey	2164		300	1146	200	500	2646			1475
New York	10714	1007	4950	6300	900	5332	10899	38700	3162	7411
North Carolina	694	233	1181	835	300	2500	650			814
Ohio	6148	663	1720	2888	2000	2748	4140	1400	500	3154
Oregon	1264			1257			5000		500	1352
Pennsylvania	7789	5000	5000	2938		2671	10175	2717	3400	3704
Rhode Island	4410		000	2066			900			2489
South Carolina	1686	906	490	1054			5338		475	1354
Tennessee	2483	1150	1700	1383			1305			1747
Texas	628	704	443	721			980			701
Vermont	963			1465			25600			2523
Virginia	1651	772	986	1001		950	1389			1107
West Virginia	1267	350	216	801		600	1550			842
Wisconsin	2044	1600	2050	1200		1383	2009			1317
Territories	733	222	645	933		1000	960			858
New Brunswick, D. C.	2367	400		1600	2000	5000	700		1500	1750
Nova Scotia, D. C.	1367	1610		1165	400		2283			1334
Ontario, D. C.	3046	1100	700	1594			3267		3000	1897
Quebec, D. C.	3154	1647	1596	2687		14500	1492		900	1409
British Colonies	367	350	556	758	700					640
Total average	2717	1057	1272	1598	1096	2741	4081	7421	1951	1842

UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN GOLD COINS.

THEIR VALUE, WEIGHTS AND FINENESS AS TESTED AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.

NOTE.—The weight is given in Troy-ounces and decimals of the same; the fineness shows how many parts in 1000 are fine gold; the value is the intrinsic relative value, as compared with the amount of fine gold in U. S. coin.

COUNTRIES.	DENOMINATIONS.	Weight.	Fineness.	Value.
Australia	Pound of 1852	0.281	916.5	$ 5.324
"	Sovereign, 1855 and 1860	0.2565	916	4.857
Austria	Ducat	0.112	986	2.283
"	Sovereign	0.363	900	6.754
"	New Union Coin	0.357	900	6.642
Belgium	Twenty-five Francs	0.254	899	4.72
Bolivia	Doubloon	0.867	870	15.593
Brazil	Twenty Milreis	0.575	917.5	10.906
Central America	Two Escudos	0.209	853.5	3.688
" "	Four Reals	0.027	875	0.488
Chili	Old Doubloon	0.867	870	15.593
"	Ten Pesos	0.492	900	9.154
Denmark	Ten Thalers	0.427	895	7.90
Ecuador	Four Escudos	0.433	844	7.555
England	Pound or Sovereign, new	0.2567	916.5	4.863
"	" " average	0.2562	916	4.851
France	Twenty Francs, new	0.2075	899	3.858
"	" " average	0.207	899	3.874
Germany	Ten Thalers	0.427	895	7.90
"	Ten Mark	0.128	900	2.38
"	Krone (crown)	0.357	900	6.642
"	Twenty Mark	0.256	90	4.76
Greece	Twenty Drachms	0.185	900	3.442
Hindostan	Mohur	0.374	916	7.082
Italy	Twenty Lire	0.207	898	3.843
Japan	Old Cobang	0.362	568	4.44
"	" "	0.289	572	3.576
"	Yen, (new, assumed)	0.535	900	9.956
Mexico	Doubloon, average	0.8675	866	15.53
"	" new	0.8675	870.5	15.611
"	Twenty Pesos (Max.)	1.086	875	19.643
"	" " (Repub.)	1.090	875	19.72
Naples	Six Ducacti	1.245	996	5.044
Netherlands	Ten Guilders	0.215	809	3.997
New Granada	Old Doubloon (Begota)	0.868	870	15.611
" "	" " (Popayan)	0.867	858	15.378
" "	Ten Pesos	0.525	891.5	9.675
Peru	Old Doubloon	0.867	868	15.557
"	Twenty Sols	1.055	898	19.213
Portugal	Gold Crown	0.308	912	5.807
Prussia	New Crow (assumed)	0.357	900	6.642
Rome	Two and a-half Scudi (new)	0.240	900	2.605
Russia	Five Rubles	0.210	916	3.976
Spain	One hundred Reals	0.268	896	4.964
"	Eighty Reals	0.215	869.5	3.864
Sweden	Ducat	0.111	875	2.237
"	Carolin, 10 frs	0.104	900	1.935
Tunis	Twenty-five Paistres	0.161	900	2.995
Turkey	One hundred "	0.231	915	4.369
Tuscany	Seguin	0.112	999	2.313
United States	Dollar	0.05375	900	1.00
" "	Quarter Eagle	0.13437	900	2.50
" "	Three Dollars	0.16125	900	3.00
" "	Half Eagle	0.26875	900	5.00
" "	Eagle	0.5375	900	10.00
" "	Double Eagle	1.075	900	20.00

United States Trade Dollar. Weight, 420 grains; 900 fine.

UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN SILVER COINS.

THE BASIS OF VALUATION BEING $1.22½ PER OZ. OF STANDARD FINENESS, AS TESTED AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.

[NOTE.—Weight in Troy ounces fineness in thousandths.]

COUNTRIES.	DENOMINATION.	Weight.	Fineness.	Value.
Austria	Old Rix Dollar	0.902	833	$1.023
"	Old Scudo	0.836	902	1.026
"	Florin, before 1858	0 451	833	511
"	New Florin	0 397	900	.486
"	New Union Dollar	0.596	900	.731
"	Maria Theresa Dollar, 1780	0.895	838	1.021
Belgium	Five Francs	0.803	897	.98
Bolivia	New Dollar	0.801	900	.981
Brazil	Double Milreis	0.820	918.5	1.025
Canada	Twenty Cents	0.150	925	.189
"	Twenty-five Cents	0.1875	925	.236
Central America	Dollar	0.866	850	1.002
Chili	Old Dollar	0.864	908	1.068
"	New Dollar	0.801	900.5	.982
China	Dollar (English) assumed	0.866	901	1.062
"	Ten Cents	0.087	901	.106
Denmark	Two Rigsdaler	0.927	877	1.107
England	Shilling, new	0.1825	924.5	.23
"	" average	0.178	925	.224
France	Five Francs, average	0.800	900	.98
"	Two Francs	0.320	835	364
Germany	One Mark	0 402	900	19
"	New Thaler	0.595	900	.729
"	Florin, before 1857	0.340	900	.417
"	New Florin, assumed	0 340	900	.417
Greece	Five Drachms	0.719	900	.881
Hindostan	Rupee	0.374	916	466
Japan	Itzabu	0.279	991	.376
"	New Itzabu	0.279	890	.338
"	Ten Sen (new coinage)	0.804	800	.985
Mexico	Dollar, new	0.8675	903	1.066
"	" average	0.866	901	1.062
"	Peso of Maximilion	0.861	902.5	1.055
Naples	Scudo	0.844	830	.953
Netherlands	Two and a-half Guilders	0.804	944	1.033
Norway	Specie Daler	0.827	877	1.107
New Granada	Dollar of 1857	0 803	896	.98
Peru	Old Dollar	0.866	901	1.062
"	Dollar of 1858	0.766	909	.948
"	Half Dollar, 1835 and 1838	0.433	650	.383
"	Sol	0.802	900	.982
Prussia	Thaler, before 1857	0.712	750	.727
"	New Thaler	0.595	900	.729
Rome	Scudo	0.864	900	1.058
Russia	Ruble	0.667	875	.794
Sardinia	Five Lire	0.800	900	.98
Spain	New Pistareen	0.166	899	.203
Sweden	Rix Dollar	0.092	750	1.115
Switzerland	Two Francs	0.323	899	.395
Tunis	Five Piastres	0.511	898.5	.625
Turkey	Twenty Piastres	0.770	830	.87
Tuscany	Florin	0.220	925	.276
United States	Dollar	0.859⅜	900	------
" "	Half Dollar	0.400	900	------
" "	Quarter Dollar	0.200	900	------
" "	Dime	0.080	900	------
" "	Half Dime	0.040	900	------
" "	Three Cents	0.024	900	------

The values of United States Silver Coins are not given owing to their fluctuation.

CENSUS OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE WORLD,

Outside of the United States, having a population of 100,000 and over, according to the latest authorities.

Abbeokoota, Africa	100,000
Adrianople, Turkey	100,000
Agra, India	125,262
Ahmedabab, India	130,000
Alexandria, Egypt	180,796
Algiers, Africa	100,000
Amoy, China	250,000
Amsterdam, Holland	271,764
Antwerp, Belgium	123,571
Bahia, Brazil	125,000
Bangalore, India	140,000
Bangkok, Siam	500,000
Barcelona, Spain	189,948
Bareilly, India	111,332
Baroda, India	140,000
Belfast, Ireland	174,394
Benares, India	200,000
Beyrout, Syria	100,000
Bhurtpoor, India	100,000
Birmingham, England	343,696
Bombay, India	816,562
Bordeaux, France	194,241
Bradford, England	145,827
Breslau, Prussia	171,926
Bristol, England	182,524
Bucharest, Turkey	121,734
Cairo, Egypt	282,348
Calcutta, India	616,249
Canton, China	1,236,600
Cawnpore, India	108,790
Chang-Choo, China	1,000,000
Cologne, Prussia	125,172
Damascus, Turkey	120,000
Delhi, India	152,406
Dhar, India	100,000
Dresden, Germany	156,024
Dublin, Ireland	245,722
Dundee, Scotland	118,974
Edinburgh, Scotland	196,500
Erzroom, Turkey	100,000
Fez, Morocco	100,000
Florence, Italy	114,363
Foo-Choo, China	600,000
Fyzabad, India	100,000
Genoa, Italy	127,986
Ghent, Belgium	126,203
Glasgow, Scotland	477,144
Greenwich, England	167,632
Hamburg, Germany	224,974
Han-Keoo, China	800,000
Havana, Cuba	205,676
Herat, Afghanistan	100,000
London, England	3,500,000
Hyderabad, India	200,000
Joodpoor, India	150,000
Konisberg, Prussia	106,296
Leeds, England	259,201
Liege, Belgium	111,853
Lille, France	154,749
Liverpool, England	493,346
Lucknow, India	300,000
Lyons, France	323,954
Madras, India	427,771
Manchester, England	383,843
Manila, Philipine Is	160,000
Marseilles, France	300,131
Miako, Japan	500,000
Milan, Italy	196,109
Montreal, Canada	107,225
Moorshedabad, India	146,963
Moscow, Russia	368,103
Nagpoor, India	111,231
Nanking, China	400,000
Nantes, France	111,956
Naples, Italy	418,968
Newcastle-on-Tyne, Eng	128,160
Ningpo, China	400,000
Odessa, Russia	119,376
Ooroomtsee, Toorkistan	150,000
Osaka, Japan	373,000
Palermo, Italy	167,625
Patna, India	284,132
Pesth, Hungary	201,911
Portsmouth, England	112,954
Prague, Bohemia	157,123
Riga, Russia	102,043
Rotterdam, Holland	118,837
Rouen, France	102,649
Saigon, Anam	200,000
Salford, England	124,805
Seville, Spain	118,298
Shang-Hai, China	395,000
Sheffield, England	239,947
Smyrna, Asia Minor	150,000
Soo-Choo, China	2,000,000
Stoke-upon-Trent, England	130,507
Toulouse, France	113,229
Triest, Austria	104,707
Tunis, Africa	125,000
Turin, Italy	180,580
Valencia, Spain	107,703
Venice, Italy	118,172
Warsaw, Poland	243,512
Yarkand, Toorkistan	125,000

POPULATION, AREA, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT OF PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

Countries.	Population	Date of Cen.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabit's to Sq're Mile.	Capitals.	Popula'n	Prevailing Religion.	Form of Government.
China	446,500,000	1871	3,741,845	119.3	Pekin	1,648,800	Buddhic	Monarchy.
British Empire	226,817,108	1871	4,677,4 2	48.6	London	3,251,800	Protestant	Monarchy.
Russia	81,925,400	1871	8,003,778	10 2	St. Petersburg	667,600	Greek Church	Monarchy.
United States, with Alaska	38,925,600	1870	2,603 88	7.78	Washington	109,199	Protestant	Republic.
France	36,469,800	1866	204 091	178.7	Paris	1,825,300	Catholic	Republic.
Austria and Hungary	35,904,400	1869	240 348	149.4	Vienna	833,900	Catholic	Monarchy.
Japan	34,785,300	1871	149 399	232.8	Yeddo	1,554,900	Buddhic	Monarchy.
Great Britain and Ireland	31,817,100	1871	121.315	262 3	London	3,251,800	Protestant	Monarchy.
German Empire	29,906,092	1871	160,207	187.	Berlin	825,400	Protestant	Empire.*
Italy	27,439,921	1871	118,847	230.9	Rome	244,484	Catholic	Monarchy.
Spain	16,642,003	1867	193 775	85.	Madrid	332,600	Catholic	Monarchy.
Brazil	10,000,000	----	3,253,029	3.07	Rio Janeiro	420,000	Catholic	Monarchy.
Turkey	16,463,000	...	672,621	24.4	Constantinople	1,075,000	Mohammedan	Monarchy.
Mexico	9,173,000	1869	761,526	.....	Mexico	210,300	Catholic	Republic.
Sweden and Norway	5,921,500	1870	292,871	20.	Stockholm	136,000	Protestant	Monarchy.
Persia	5,000,000	1870	635,964	7.8	Teheran	120,000	Mohammedan	Monarchy.
Belgium	5,021,300	1869	11,373	441 5	Brussels	314,100	Catholic	Monarchy.
Bavaria	4,861,400	1871	29,292	165 9	Munich	169,500	Catholic	Monarchy.
Portugal	3,995,200	1863	34,494	115.8	Lisbon	224,063	Catholic	Monarchy.
Holland	3,688,300	1870	12,680	290.9	Hague	90,100	Protestant	Monarchy.
New Grenada	3,000,000	1870	357,157	8.4	Bogola	45,000	Catholic	Republic.
Chili	2,000,000	1869	132 616	15.1	Santiago,	115,400	Catholic	Republic.
Switzerland	2,669,100	1870	15,992	166.9	Berne	36,000	Protestant	Confederation†
Peru	2,500,000	1871	471,838	5.3	Lima	160,100	Catholic	Republic.
Bolivia	2,000,000	----	497,321	4.	Chuquisaca	25,000	Catholic	Republic.
Argentine Republic	1,812,000	1869	871,848	2.1	Buenos Ayres	177,800	Catholic	Republic.
Wurtemburg	1,818,500	1871	7,533	241.4	Stuttgart	91,600	Protestant	Monarchy.
Denmark	1,784,700	1870	14,753	120.9	Copenhagen	162,042	Protestant	Monarchy.
Venezuela	1,500,000	----	368,288	4.2	Caraccas	47,000	Catholic	Republic.
Baden	1,461,400	1871	5,912	247.	Carlsruhe	36,600	Catholic	Grand Duchy.
Greece	1,457,900	1870	19,353	75.3	Athens	43,400	Greek Church	Monarchy.
Guatemala	1,180,000	1871	40,879	28.9	Guatemala	40,000	Catholic	Republic.
Ecuador	1,300,000	----	218,928	5.9	Quito	70,000	Catholic	Republic.
Paraguay	1,000 000	1871	63,787	15.6	Asuncion	48,000	Catholic	Republic.
Hesse	823,138	----	2,969	277.	Darmstadt	30,000	Protestant	Grand Duchy.
Liberia	718,000	1871	9,576	74.9	Monrovia	3,000	Protestant	Republic.
San Salvador	600,000	1871	7,335	81.8	San Salvador	15,000	Catholic	Republic.
Hayti	572,000	...	10,205	56.	Port au Prince	20,000	Catholic	Republic.

* Imperial Confederation. † Republican Confederation.

IMPORTANT EVENTS.

Before Christ.	
The Deluge	2348
Babylon built	2247
Birth of Abraham	1993
Death of Joseph	1635
Moses born	1571
Athens founded	1556
The Pyramids built	1250
Solomon's Temple finished	1004
Rome founded	753
Jerusalem destroyed	587
Babylon taken by Jews	538
Death of Socrates	400
Rome taken by the Gauls	385
Paper invented in China	170
Carthage destroyed	146
Cæsar landed in Britain	55
Cæsar killed	44
Birth of Christ	0
After Christ.	
Death of Augustus	14
Pilot, governor of Judea	27
Jesus Christ crucified	33
Claudius visited Britain	43
St. Paul put to death	67
Death of Josephus	93
Jerusalem rebuilt	131
The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews and banished the rest from Judea	135
The Bible in Gothic	373
Horseshoes made of iron	481
Latin tongue ceased to be spoken	580
Pens made of Quills	635
Organs used	660
Glass in England	663
Bank of Venice established	1157

After Christ.	
Glass windows first used for lights	1180
Mariner's Compass used	1200
Coal dug for fuel	1234
Chimneys first put to houses	1236
Spectacles invented by an Italian	1240
The first English House of Commons	1258
Tallow Candles for lights	1290
Paper made from linen	1302
Woolen cloth made in England	1341
The first almanac	1470
First book printed in England	1507
Luther began to preach	1517
Interest fixed at ten per cent. in England	1547
Telescopes invented	1549
First coach made in England	1564
Clocks first made in England	1568
Bank of England incorporated	1594
Shakspeare died	1616
Circulation of the blood discovered	1619
Barometer invented	1623
Death of Galileo	1643
Steam engine invented	1649
Great fire in London	1666
Cotton planted in the United States	1759
Commencement of the American War	1775
Declaration of American Independence	1776
Recognition of American Independence	1782
Bank of Eng. suspended cash payment	1791
Napoleon I. crowned emperor	1804
Death of Napoleon	1820
Telegraph invented by Morse	1832
First daguerreotype in France	1839
Beginning of the American civil war	1861
End of the American civil war	1865
Great fire in Chicago	1871

DIFFERENCE OF TIME

BETWEEN WASHINGTON AND OTHER CITIES OF THE WORLD.

12.00	o'clock	(noon) at	Washington.
12.12	"	P.M.	New York.
12.24	"	"	Boston.
12.27	"	"	Portland.
1.37	"	"	St. John (N.F.)
3.19	"	"	Angra (Azores)
4.31	"	"	Lisbon.
4.43	"	"	Dublin.
4.55	"	"	Edinburgh.
5.07	"	"	London.
5.17	"	"	Paris.
5.58	"	"	Rome.
6.02	"	"	Berlin.
6.14	o'clock	P.M.	Vienna.
6.22	"	"	Cape Town.
7.04	"	"	Constantinople.
11.01	"	"	Calcutta.
12.54	"	A.M.	Pekin.
2.48	"	"	Melbourne.
4.51	"	"	Auckland.
8.58	"	"	San Francisco.
9.40	"	"	Salt Lake.
11.08	"	"	New Orleans.
11.18	"	"	Chicago.
11.52	"	"	Buffalo.
12.00	"	(noon)	Lima (Peru.)

NUMBER OF VOLUMES

IN THE LARGEST PUBLIC LIBRARIES OF EUROPE.

Place.	Vols.	MSS.
Royal Library, Paris	700,000	80,000
Royal Central, Munich	500,000	16,000
Bodlean, Oxford	420,000	30,000
St. Petersburg	400,000	16,000
Copenhagen	400,000	20,000
Vienna	350,000	16,000

Place.	Vols.	MSS.
University, Gottingen	300,000	5,000
Naples	300,000	6,000
Dresden	300,000	2,700
Berlin	250,000	5,000
British Museum	208,000	20,000
Vatican, Rome	100,000	40,000

REMARKABLE DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS, Etc.

Æolian harp invented, 1653.
Air Gun invented, 1656.
Air Pump invented, 1652.
Algebra invented, 170.
America discovered by Columbus, 1492.
Anemometer invented, 1709.
Animalculæ discovered, 1677.
Artillery invented, 1330.
Australia discovered, 1601.
Baloon first used in Paris, 1783.
Bayonets invented, 1691.
Bells introduced in Europe, 400.
Brazil discovered, 1500.
California discovered, 1535.
Camera obscura invented, 1550.
Canada discovered, 1499.
Cape of Good Hope, disc. by B. Diaz, 1486.
Cape Horn discovered, 1616.
Carbonic acid discovered by Lavoisier, 1776.
Cedar brought to Europe, 1664.
Chess invented, 680 B. C.
Chloroform discov. by Scheele, 1774.
Cotton first made at Kendal, 1390.
Cotton spinning machine invented, 1767.
Cotton spinning frame invented, 1769.
Cotton spinning gin invented, 1793.
Dice invented, 1183 B. C.
Diving bell first used, 1509.
Electricity discovered by Dr. Gilbert, 1600.
Engraving on wood invented, 1400.
Engraving on copper invented, 1450.
Engraving on steel invented, 1819.
Epsom Salts discovered, 1630.
Flag signals invented, 1665.
Florida discovered, 1497.
Forbisher's Straits discovered, 1576,
Galvanism discovered, 1789.
Gas evolved from coal, 1739.
Gravitation disc. by Sir Isaac Newton, 1687.
Greenland discovered, 1378.
Grenades invented, 1594.
Guillotine invented, 1783.
Gun cotton discovered by Schœbein, 1846.
Gunpowder invented by Roger Bacon, 1270.
Helena St., discovered, 1502.
Heliometer invented, 1743.
Hudson's Bay discovered, 1610.
Hydrometer invented, 200 B. C.
Iceland discovered, 871.
Iodine discovered, 1812.
Jamaica discovered, 1495.
Japan discovered, 1542.
Kaleidoscope invented, 1814.
Kamtschatka discovered, 1649.
Life Boat (first) launched, 1790.
Light, refraction of, discovered, 1621.
Lightning conductor invented, 1757.
Lithography invented by Senefelder, 1796.
Locomotive invented by Watt, 1759.
Loom (power) invented by Cartwright, 1785.
Loom, invented by Jacquard, 1801.
Loom, steam, introduced, 1807.
Madagascar discovered, 1506.
Madeira discovered, 1345.
Mexico discovered, 1578.
Microscope invented, 1590.
Newfoundland discovered, 1000.
Newspaper first published in England, 1663.
New Zealand discovered, 1642.
Nile source discovered, Feb., 1863.
N. W. passage disc. by M'Clure, 1850.
Paper made by Egyptians, 200 B. C.
Paper made of cotton, A. D. 1000.
Paper made of rags, 1300.
Paper mill first erected at Dartford, 1590.
Photography invented by Daguerre, 1839.
Pianoforte invented by Schroder, 1717.
Printing invented by Guttenburg, 1444.
Printing press established in America, 1638.
Railway first built by Stephenson, 1825.
Sewing Machine invented by Howe, 1846.
Steam Boat built by Robert Fulton, 1803.
Steam Engine invented by Marquis of Worcester, 1663.
Stenography, or short-hand, invented, 1412.
Stereotyping invented, Edinburgh, 1735.
Stocking Frame invented, 1589.
Suez Canal completed by Lessep, 1869.
Sun spots discovered, 1611.
Tar (mineral) discovered, 1779.
Telegraph patented by Professor Wheatstone, 1836.
Telescope first made by Metius, Alpmær, etc., 1590–1609.
Thermometer (Fahrenheit) invented, 1726.
Thimbles invented, 1695.
Thrashing Machines invented, 1732.
Twist-frame invented, 1769.
Vaccination discovered by Dr. Jenner, 1780.
Watches first made in Germany, 1777.
World circumnavigated, Magellan, 1520.
Zincography introduced, 1817.

OUR PUBLIC LANDS.

The public lands lying east of the Mississippi amount to about sixty millions of acres. Those lying between the Mississippi and the Pacific ocean amount to 998,683,562 acres, distributed as follows:

	ACRES.
Iowa, Missouri and Arkansas	16,000,000
Dakota and Wyoming	145,236,284
Montana	86,904,605
Kansas	48,148,876
Nebraska	42,523,627
Colorado and Idaho	117,800,000
New Mexico and Utah	124,140,000
Nevada and Arizona	136,000,000
Minnesota	36,776,170
California, Oregon and Washington	201,000,000
Indiana	44,154,000—998,683,562

Adding the 60,000,000 of acres east of the Mississippi and the 400,000,000 of acres in the Territory of Alaska, we have in round numbers over 1,400,000,000 acres of land owned by the government.

THE LONGEST RIVERS OF THE WORLD.

Rivers.	Locality.	Rise.	Discharge.	Mls.
Missouri	North America	Rocky Mountains	Gulf of Mexico	4,500
Mississippi	North America	Lake Itaska	Gulf of Mexico	3,200
Amazon	Brazil	Andes	Atlantic Ocean	3,200
Hoang-Ho	China	Koulkoun Mountains	Yellow Sea	3,000
Murray	Australasia	Australian Alps	Encounter Bay	3,000
Obi	Siberia	Altaian Mountains	Arctic Ocean	2,800
Nile	Egypt, Nubia	Blue Nile, Abyssinia	Mediterranean	2,750
Yang-tse-Kiang	China	Thibet	China Sea	2,500
Lena	Siberia	Heights of Irkutsk	Arctic Ocean	2,500
Niger	Soudan	Base of Mt. Loma	Gulf of Guinea	2,300
St. Lawrence	Canada	River St. Louis	Atlantic Ocean	1,960
Volga	Russia	Lake in Volhonsky	Caspian Sea	1,900
Maykiang	Siam	Thibet	Chinese Gulf	1,700
Indus	Hindostan	Little Thibet	Arabian Sea	1,700
Danube	Germany	Black Forest	Black Sea	1,630
Mackenzie	North America	River Athabosco	Arctic Ocean	1,600
Brahmapootra	Thibet	Himalaya	Bay of Bengal	1,500
Columbia	North America	Rocky Mountains	Pacific Ocean	1,096
Colorado	North America	San laba	Gulf of California	1,000
Susquehanna	North America	Lake Otsego	Chesapeake Bay	400
James	North America	Alleghany Mountains	Chesapeake Bay	500
Potomac	North America	Gr. Black Bone Mount'n	Chesapeake Bay	400
Hudson	North America	Marsh nr. L. Champlain	Bay of New York	325

HEIGHT OF MONUMENTS, TOWERS, ETC.

Names.	Places.	Feet.
Pyramid of Cheops	Egypt	543
Antwerp Cathedral	Belgium	476
Strasburg Cathedral	France	474
St. Martin's Church at Landshut	Bavaria	456
Pyramid of Cephrenes	Egypt	456
St. Peter's Church	Rome	448
St. Paul's Church, London	England	404
Salisbury Cathedral	England	400
Cathedral at Florence	Italy	384
Cathedral at Cremona	Lombardy	372
Church at Fribourg	Germany	370
Cathedral of Seville	Spain	360
Cathedral of Milan	Lombardy	355
Cathedral of Utrecht	Holland	356
Pyramid of Sakkarah	Egypt	356
Cathedral of Notre Dame, Munich	Bavaria	348
St. Mark's Church	Venice	328
Assinelli Tower, Bologna	Italy	314
Trinity Church	New York	283
Column at Delhi	Hindostan	262
Porcelain Tower, Nankin	China	248
Church of Notre Dame	Paris	232
Bunker Hill Monument	Massachusetts	220
Leaning Tower of Pisa	Italy	202
Washington Monument	Baltimore	183
Monument Place Vendome	Paris	153
Trojan Pillar, Rome	Italy	151
Obelisk of Luxor, now in	Paris	110

ORIGIN OF PLANTS.

Substance.	Where Originated.	Substance.	Where Originated.
Apples	Europe	Pines	America
Cucumbers	East Indies	Pears	Egypt
Chestnuts	Italy	Peaches	Persia
Citrons	Greece	Parsley	Sardinia
Celery	Germany	Quince	Isle of Crete
Horse Radish	Southern Europe	Radish	China
Nettles	Europe	Rye	Siberia
Oats	North Africa	Spinach	Arabia
Onions	Egypt	Tobacco	Virginia
Pears	Europe		

OCEANS, SEAS, BAYS AND LAKES.

Oceans.	*Sq. Miles.*
Pacific, about	80,000,000
Atlantic, "	40,000,000
Indian, "	20,000,000
Southern, "	10,000,000
Arctic, "	5,000,000

NOTE—The seas, bays, gulfs, etc., connected with each ocean, are included in the foregoing estimate. It may be proper to remark, however, that the exact superficial extent of the several oceans is not known with certainty, nor the exact proportion of land and water.

Seas.	*L'gth in Miles.*
Mediterranean, about	2,000
Caribbean, "	1,800
China, "	1,700
Red, "	1,400
Japan, "	1,000
Black, "	932
Caspian, "	640
Baltic, "	600
Okhotsk, "	600
White, "	450
Aral, "	250

Bays.	*L'gth in Miles.*
Hudson's, about	1,200
Baffin's, "	600
Chesapeake, "	250

Lakes.	*L'gth.*	*W'th.*
Superior	380	120
Baikal	360	35
Michigan	330	60
Great Slave	300	45
Huron	250	90
Winnipeg	240	40
Erie	270	50
Athabasca	200	20
Ontario	180	40
Maracaybo	150	60
Great Bear	150	40
Ladoga	125	75
Champlain	123	12
Nicaragua	120	40
Lake of the Woods	70	25
Geneva	50	10
Constance	45	10
Cayuga	36	4
George	36	3

HIGHEST MOUNTAINS OF THE WORLD.

NAMES.	Country.	Feet.	Miles.
Kunchainyunga (Himalayas)	Thibet	28,178	5¼
Sorata, the highest in America	Bolivia	25,380	5
Illimani	Bolivia	21,780	4⅛
Chimborazo	Ecuador	21,144	4⅛
Hindoo-Koosh	Afghanistan	20,600	3⅞
Cotopaxi, highest volcano in the world	Ecuador	19,408	3⅞
Antisana	Ecuador	19,150	3⅞
St. Elias, highest in North America	British Possessions	18,000	3⅜
Popocotepetl, volcano	Mexico	17,735	3⅜
Mt. Roa, highest in Oceanica	Hawaii	16,000	3
Mt. Brown, highest peak in the Rocky Mountains	British America	15,900	3
Mont Blanc, highest in Europe, Alps	Sardinia	15,766	3
Mt. Rosa, next highest peak of Alps	Sardinia	15,380	3
Limit of perpetual snow	Equator	15,207	2⅞
Pinchinca	Ecuador	15,200	2⅞
Mt. Fairweather	Russian Possessions	14,736	2⅞
Mt. St. Helen's	Oregon	14,480	2 2-5
Demavend, highest of Elburz Mountains, volcano	Persia	14,000	2⅝
Mt. Hood	Oregon	14,000	2⅝
Mt. Ophir	Sumatra	13,800	2⅝
Fremont's Peak, Rocky Mountains	Nebraska	13,570	2⅝
Mt. Ararat	Armenia	12,700	2⅜
Long's Peak, Rocky Mountains	Nebraska	12,500	2⅜
Peak of Teneriffe	Canaries	12,236	2⅜
Miltsin, highest of Atlas Mountains	Morocco	12,000	2 2-5
Mt. Perdu, highest of Pyrenees	France	10,950	2⅛
Mt. Lebanon	Syria	11,000	2⅛
Mt. Ætno, volcano	Sicily	10,050	2
City of Quito	Austria	9,912	1⅞
Ruska Poyana, highest in the Carpathian Mountains,	Ecuador	9,630	1⅞
Monte Corno, highest of Appenines	Naples	9,523	1⅞
Orbelus, highest of Balkan Mountains	Turkey	9,000	1 3-5
Sneehattan, highest Dovrefield Mountains	Norway	8,115	1 2-5
Mount Sinai	Arabia	8,000	1 2-5
Pindus, highest in Greece	Greece	7,677	1 2-5
Black Mountain, highest in North Carolina	North Carolina	6,476	1 2-5
Mt. Washington, highest in White Mountains	New Hampshire	6,234	1⅛
Mt. Marcy, highest in New York	New York	5,467	1
Mt. Hecla, volcano	Iceland	5,000	1
Ben Nevis, highest in Great Britain	Scotland	4,379	⅞
Mansfield, highest of Green Mountains	Vermont	4,280	⅞
Peaks of Otter	Virginia	4,260	⅞
Mt. Vesuvius	Naples	3,932	⅞
Round Top, highest of Catskill Mountains	New York	3,804	¾
Peter Botte	Mauritius	3,764	¾

THE LARGEST ROOMS IN THE WORLD.

Estimating a person to occupy an area of 19.9 inches square.

CHURCHES.	*Contain No. Persons.*
St. Peter's, Rome	54,000
Cathedral, Milan	37,000
St. Paul's, Rome	32,000
St. Paul's, London	25,600
St. Petronio, Bologna	24,400
Cathedral, Florence	24,300
Cathedral, Antwerp	24,000
St. Sophia's, Constantinople	23,000
St. John's, Lateran	22,900
Notre Dame, Paris	21 000
Cathedral, Pisa	13,000
St. Stephen's, Vienna	12,400
St. Dominic's Bologna	12,000
St. Peter's, Bologna	11,400
Cathedral, Vienna	11,000
St. Mark's, Venice	7,500

Opera Houses and Theaters.	
Barnum's Hippodrome, New York	8,433
Stadt Theater, New York	3,000
Academy of Music, Philadelphia	2,865
Carlo Felice, Genoa	2,560
Academy of Music, Brooklyn	
Opera House, Munich	2,307
Alexander, St. Petersburg	2,332

	Contain No. Persons.
San Carlos, Naples	2,240
Adelphi Theater, Chicago	2,238
Imperial, St. Petersburg	2,160
La Scala, Milan	2,113
Academy of Paris, Paris	2,092
Covent Garden, London	2,684
Academy of Music, New York	2,526
Boston Theater, Boston	2,972
Music Hall, Boston	2,585
Grand Opera Hall, New Orleans	2,052
St. Charles Theater, New Orleans	2,178
Grand Opera House, New York	1,883
Booth's Theater, New York	1,807
Opera House, Detroit	1,790
McVicker's Theater, Chicago	1,786
Grand Opera House, Chicago	1,786
Ford's Opera House, Baltimore	1,720
National Theater, Washington	1,709
De Bar's Opera House, St. Louis	1,696
California Theater, San Francisco	1,651
Euclid Ave. Opera House, Cleveland	1,650
Opera House, Berlin	1,636
Opera House, Albany	1,404
Hooley's Theater, Chicago	1,373
Coulter Opera House, Aurora, Ill.	1,004
Opera House, Montreal	928

TIME REQUIRED FOR THE DIGESTION OF FOOD.

SUBSTANCE.	Hrs.	Min.
Rice, Boiled	1	
Eggs, whipped, raw	1	30
Trout, fresh, fried	1	30
Soup, Barley, boiled	1	30
Apples, sweet, mellow, raw	1	30
Venison steak, broiled	1	45
Sago, boiled	1	45
Tapioca, boiled	2	
Barley, boiled	2	
Milk, boiled	2	
Liver, beef, fresh, broiled	2	
Eggs, fresh, raw	2	
Apples, sour, mellow, raw	2	
Cabbage, with vinegar, raw	2	
Milk, raw	2	15
Eggs, fresh, roasted	2	15
Turkey, domestic, roasted	2	30
Goose, wild, roasted	2	30
Cake, sponge, baked	2	30
Hash, warmed	2	30
Beans, pod, boiled	2	30
Parsnips, boiled	2	30
Potatoes, Irish, baked	2	30
Cabbage, head, raw	2	30
Custard, baked	2	45
Apples, sour, hard, raw	2	50
Oysters, fresh, raw	2	55
Eggs, fresh, soft boiled	3	
Beefsteak, broiled	3	
Mutton, fresh broiled	3	
Mutton, fresh boiled	3	
Soup, bean, boiled	3	

SUBSTANCE.	Hrs.	Min.
Chicken soup, boiled	3	
Dumpling, apple, boiled	3	
Oysters, fresh, roasted	3	15
Pork, salted, broiled	3	15
Porksteak, broiled	3	15
Mutton, fresh, roasted	3	15
Bread, corn, baked	3	15
Carrot, orange, boiled	3	15
Sausage, fresh, broiled	3	20
Oysters, fresh, stewed	3	30
Butter, melted	3	30
Cheese, old, raw	3	30
Oyster soup, boiled	3	30
Bread, wheat, fresh, baked	3	30
Turnips, flat, boiled	3	30
Potatoes, Irish, boiled	3	30
Eggs, fresh, hard boiled	3	30
Eggs, fresh, fried	3	30
Green corn and beans, boiled	3	45
Beets, boiled	3	45
Salmon, salted, boiled	4	
Beef, fried	4	
Veal, fresh, broiled	4	
Fowls, domestic, boiled	4	
Beef, old, salted, boiled	4	15
Pork, salted, fried	4	15
Pork, salted, boiled	4	30
Veal, fresh, fried	4	30
Cabbage, boiled	4	30
Pork, roasted	5	15
Suet, beef, boiled	5	30

TABLES OF LEGAL WEIGHTS, LAND MEASURES, Etc.

Legal Weights of Bushel, in Pounds:
VARYING IN DIFFERENT STATES, THUS:

Articles.	Ill.	Iowa.	Wis.	Mich.	Ind.	Mo.	N. Y.	Ohio.
Apples, dried	24	24	28	28	25	24	22	25
Barley	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	48
Beans, white	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Buckwheat	52	52	40	42	50	52	48	52
Broom Corn Seed	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	50
Corn, shelled	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Corn, ear	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70
Flax Seed	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Grass Seed, Blue	14	14	14	14	14	10	15	10
" Clover	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	62
" Hungarian	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	50
" Millet	50	45	50	50	--	50	--	50
" Red Top	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
" Timothy	45	--	--	--	--	45	45	45
Hemp Seed	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	42
Malt, Barley	34	36	38	38	38	38	34	34
Oats	22	33	32	32	32	35	32	30
Onions	57	57	57	56	57	57	57	56
" Top	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	25
Potatoes	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
" Sweet	55	55	54	55	55	55	55	55
Rye	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Wheat	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60

United States Land Measure †

TOWNSHIP.

6	5	4	3	2	1
7	8	9	10	11	12
18	17	16	15	14	13
19	20	21	22	23	24
30	29	28	27	26	25
31	32	33	34	35	36

SECTION.

N. W.	N. E.
S. W.	S. E.

Each section has four quarter sections, designated as above, each containing 160 acres.

† In Several States.

The township is six miles square, divided into 36 square miles or sections, numbered as above, each containing 640 acres.

SMALLER LAND DIVISIONS.

The following table will assist in making an estimate of the amount of land in fields and lots:

§ 10 rods x 16 rods, - - - 1 acre.
† 5 yards x 968 yards - - - 1 "
‡ 220 feet x 198 feet - - - 1 "
25 feet x 125 feet, - - - .0717 "
4356 sq. ft., .10 acre. 10890 sq. ft., .25 "
21780 " .50 " 32670 " .76 "

§ Or any two numbers whose product is 160.
† Or any two numbers whose product is 4,840.
‡ Or any two numbers whose product is 43,560.

EXPORTS OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

ARABIA — Coffee, aloes, myrrh, frankincense, gum arabic.
ASIATIC ISLANDS — Pepper, cloves nutmegs, ginger, camphor, coffee, etc.
BELGIUM — Grain, flax, hops, woolens, linens, laces, various manufactures.
BRAZIL — Cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, gold, diamonds, wheat, dye-woods.
CANADA, NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK — Flour, furs, lumber, fish.
CAPE COLONY — Brandy, wine, ostrich feathers, hides, tallow.
CENTRAL AMERICA — Logwood, mahogany, indigo, cocoa.
CHILI — Silver, gold, copper, wheat, hemp, hides, sugar, cotton, fruits.
CHINA — Tea, silks, nankeens, porcelain, articles of ivory and pearl.
DENMARK — Grain, horses, cattle, beef, pork, butter and cheese.
EASTERN, WESTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA — Gold, ivory, ostrich feathers,
EGYPT — Rice, grain, linseed, fruits, indigo, cotton, sugar.
ECUADOR AND NEW GRENADA — Coffee, cotton, indigo, fruits, sugar, cocoa.
FRANCE — Silks, woolens, linens, cottons, wine, brandy, porcelain, toys.
GERMANY — Linen, grain, various manufactures of silver, copper, etc.
GREAT BRITAIN — Wollens, cottons, linens, hardware, porcelain, etc.
GREENLAND — Whale oil, whale bone, seal skins.
HINDOSTAN — Cotton, silks, rice, sugar, coffee, opium, indigo.
HOLLAND — Fine linens, woolens, butter, cheese, various manufactures.
ITALY — Silks, wines, grain, oil, fruits.
IRELAND — Linens, beef, butter, tallow, hides, potatoes, barley, etc.
JAPAN — Silk and cotton goods, Japanware, porcelain.
MEXICO — Gold, silver, logwood, cochineal, fruits.
PERSIA — Carpets, shawls, wine, silk, cotton, rice, rhubarb, guns, swords, etc.
PERU — Silver, gold, Peruvian bark, mercury, sugar, cotton, fruits.
RUSSIA — Hemp, iron, linen, grain, timber, furs, tallow, platina.
SPAIN AND PORTUGAL — Silks, wool, wine, oil, fruits, salt, etc.
SWEDEN AND NORWAY — Iron, steel, copper, timber, fish.
SWITZERLAND — Watches, jewelry, paper, laces, linen, cotton and silk goods, etc.
TURKEY — Grain, fruits, cotton, oil, wines, carpets, muslin, swords.
UNITED STATES — *Eastern States* — Lumber, beef, pork, fish, cottons, woolens, etc.
Middle States — Flour, wheat, salt, coal, cottons, woolens, etc.
Southern States — Cotton, rice, tobacco, corn, lumber, pitch, fruits.
Western States — Corn, wheat, lead, coal, iron, salt, lime, beef, pork.
VENEZUELA — Sugar, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, fruits.
WEST INDIES — Sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, spice, cotton, indigo, fruits.

TABLES OF WOODS, WEIGHTS, MEASURES, ETC.

METALS.

WEIGHT OF A CUBIC FOOT.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
Platina	1,218	12
Pure Gold*	1,203	10
Mercury	848	12
Lead	709	8
Pure Silver†	625	13
Steel	487	12
Tin	455	11
Cast Iron	450	7
Copper	547	4
Brass	543	12
Zinc	428	13

*The value of a ton of pure gold is $602,799.21. $1,000,000 gold coin weighs 3,685.8 lbs. avordupois.

†The value of a ton of silver is $37,704.84. $1,000,000 silver coin weighs 58,929.9 lbs. avordupois.

EARTH, STONE, &c.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
Italian Marble	169	4
Vermont Marble	165	9
Window Glass	165	2
Common Stone	157	8
Moist Sand	128	2
Clay	120	10
Brick	118	12
Mortar	109	6
Mud	101	14
Loose Earth	93	12
Anthracite Coal	89	12
Coke	62	8

LIQUIDS.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
Honey	90	10
Vinegar	67	8
Blood	65	14
Beer	64	10
Milk	64	8
Cider	63	10
Tar	63	7
Rain Water	62	8
Linseed Oil	58	12
Brandy	57	12
Ice	57	8
Alcohol	49	10

GROCERIES.

WEIGHT OF A CUBIC FOOT.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
Sugar	100	5
Beeswax	60	5
Lard	59	3
Butter	58	14
Tallow	58	13
Castile Soap	56	15

MISCELLANEOUS.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
India Rubber	56	7
Pressed Hay	25	
Pressed Cotton	25	

WOODS.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
Lignum Vitæ	83	5
Ebony	83	5
Mahogany	66	7
White Oak	53	12
Beech	53	4
Ash	52	13
Red Hickory	52	6
Apple	49	9
Maple	46	14
Cherry	44	11
Shellbark Hickory	43	2
Pitch Pine	41	4
Chestnut	38	2
Birch	35	7
Cedar	35	1
White Poplar	33	1
Spruce	31	4
Yellow Pine	28	13
Butternut	23	8
Cork	15	

Difference in Weight of Wood.

GREEN.

Substance.	*Lbs.*	*Oz.*
English Oak	71	10
Beech	60	
Ash	58	3
American Pine	44	12

DRY.

English Oak	43	8
Beech	53	4
Ash	52	6
American Pine	30	11

WOODS FOR FUEL.

Taking shellbark hickory as the highest standard of our forest trees, and calling that one hundred, other trees will compare with it in real value, for fuel, as follows:

Shellbark Hickory	100
Pignut Hickory	95
White Oak	84
White Ash	77
Dogwood	75
Scrub-Oak	73
White Hazel	72
Apple Tree	70
Red Oak	69
White Beech	65
Black Walnut	65
Black Birch	62
Yellow Oak	60
Hard Maple	56
White Elm	58
Red Cedar	56
Wild Cherry	55
Yellow Pine	54
Chestnut	52
Yellow Poplar	51
Butternut	43
White Birch	43
White Pine	30

Number of Trees on an Acre.

Various distances apart each way.

At 4 ft. apart	2,720
" 5 " "	1,749
" 6 " "	1,200
" 8 " "	689
" 10 " "	430
" 12 " "	325
" 15 " "	200
" 18 " "	135
" 20 " "	110
" 22 " "	70
" 30 " "	50

NUMBER OF SEEDS

In a Bushel.

Timothy	41,823,360
Clover	16,400,960
Rye	888,290
Wheat	556,290

TABLE OF HEAT AND COLD, INTEREST, PAPER, ETC.

HEAT AND COLD.

Degrees of Heat above Zero at which Substances Melt.

Substance.	*Deg.*
Wrought Iron	3,980
Cast Iron	3,479
Platinum	3,080
Gold	2,590
Copper	2,548
Steel	2,500
Glass	2,377
Brass	1,900
Silver	1,250
Antimony	951
Zinc	740
Lead	594
Tin	421
Arsenic	365
Sulphur	226
Beeswax	151
Gutta Percha	145
Tallow	97
Lard	95
Pitch	91
Ice	33

Degrees of Cold above Zero at which Substances Freeze.

Olive Oil	36
Water	32
Milk	30
Sea Water	28
Vinegar	28
Wines	20
Spirits of Turpentine	14

Degrees below Zero at which the following Freeze:

Brandy	7
Proof Spirit	7
Mercury	40
Cold experienced by Arctic Navigators	70
Greatest Artificial Cold	166

Degrees of Heat above Zero at which Substances Boil.

Ether	98
Alcohol	173
Water	212
Petroleum	306
Linseed Oil	640
Blood Heat	98
Eggs Hatch	104

AGES OF ANIMALS.

Animal.	*Yrs.*
Whale, estimated	1,090
Elephant	400
Swan	300
Tortoise	100
Eagle	100
Raven	100
Camel	100
Lion	70
Porpoise	30
Horse	20
Bear	20
Cow	20
Deer	20
Rhinoceros	20
Swine	20
Wolf	20
Cat	15
Fox	15
Dog	10
Sheep	10
Rabbit	7
Squirrel	7

Rates of Speed at which Birds Fly, per Hour.

Birds.	*Mls.*
Hawk	150
Sparrow	92
Duck	90
Falcon	75
Crow	25

Fair winds make their flight three times greater.

INTEREST.

Money Doubles at Compound Interest as follows:

At 3	per cent.	in	23	years.
" 4	"	"	17	"
" 5	"	"	14	"
" 6	"	"	12	"
" 7	"	"	10	"
" 8	"	"	9	"
" 9	"	"	8	"
"10	"	"	7	"

PAPER.

The Sizes in Inches.

Flat Writing Papers.

Flat Letter	10 x 16
Flat Cap	14 x 17
Double Flat Letter	16 x 20
Flat Foolscap	13 x 16
Crown	15 x 19
Folio Post	17 x 22
Demy	16 x 21
Medium	18 x 23
Check Folio	17 x 24
Bank Folio	19 x 24
Double Cap	17 x 28
Royal	19 x 24
Super Royal	20 x 28
Imperial	23 x 31

Of the different sizes there are also several different weights of each size, as Demy 20, 22, 24, 26, and 28 lbs. per ream.

Stationers usually rule, cut and fold the sizes required to make the various styles of letter and note papers—a flat sheet making one, two or four sheets of letter or note paper.

Ledger Papers.

Flat Cap	14 x 17
Crown	15 x 19
Folio	17 x 22
Demy	16 x 21
Medium	18 x 23
Royal	19 x 24
Super Royal	20 x 28
Imperial	23 x 31
Elephant	23 x 28

Book Papers.

The usual sizes of these, from the different American and English manufacturers, differ but little from the above, except to fill special orders.

Paper Counts.

24 sheets	1 quire.
10½ quires	1 token.
20 quires	1 ream.
2 reams	1 bundle.
5 bundles	1 bale.

Units of Anything.

12 pieces	1 dozen.
12 dozen	1 gross.
12 gross	1 great gross.
20 units	1 score.

TABLES OF MEASURES, WEIGHTS, ETC.

WEIGHTS.

Troy.

24 grains (gr.)..... 1 pennyweight—dwt.
2 dwts ..... 1 ounce—oz.
3.2 grains, one carat, diamond wt.

By this weight gold, silver, and jewels only are weighed. The ounce and pound in this are the same as in apothecaries' weight.

Apothecaries'.

20 grains..... 1 scruple.
3 scruples..... 1 drachm.
8 drs ..... 1 ounce.
12 ozs..... 1 pound.

Avoirdupois.

16 drams (drs)..... 1 ounce—oz.
16 ounces ..... 1 pound—lb.
25 pounds..... 1 quarter—qr.*
4 quarters..... 100 weight—cwt.
20 hundred weight..... 1 ton.

*Formerly 28 lbs. were allowed to the quarter, but the practice is now nearly out of use, excepting in the coal mines in Pennsylvania, the Eastern fish markets, and the U. S. Custom House.

Grains are the same in each of the above weights.

5,760 grains, apothecaries' or troy wt.....1 lb.
7,000 grains avoirdupois weight..... 1 lb.

Therefore, 144 lbs. avoirdupois equal 175 lbs. apothecaries' or troy.

Liquids.

1 gallon oil weighs 9.32 lbs. avordupois.
1 gallon distilled water, 10 lbs.
1 gallon sea water, 10.32 lbs.
1 gallon proof spirits, 9.08 lbs.

Miscellaneous.

IRON, LEAD, ETC.

14 pounds..... 1 stone.
21½ stones..... 1 pig.
8 pigs..... 1 fother.

BEEF, PORK, ETC.

200 lbs ..... 1 barrel.
196 lbs. (flour) ..... 1 barrel.
100 lbs. (fish)..... 1 quintal.

MEASURES.

Dry.

2 pints ..... 1 quart—qt.
8 quarts ..... 1 peck—pk
4 pecks..... 1 bushel—bu.
36 bushels ..... 1 chaldro

1 U. S. standard (Winchester) bushel—18½ inches in diameter, and 8 inches deep—contains 2150.42 cubic inches.

Liquid or Wine.

4 gills..... 1 pint—pt.
2 pints..... 1 quart—qt.
4 quarts..... 1 gallon—gal.
31½ gallons ..... 1 barrel—bbl.
2 barrels..... 1 hogshead—hhd.
U. S. standard gallon.....231 cubic inches.
Beer gallon..... 282 " "
36 beer gallons..... 1 barrel.

Time.

60 seconds ..... 1 minute.
60 minutes..... 1 hour.
24 hours ..... 1 day.
7 days ..... 1 week.
4 weeks..... 1 lunar month.
28, 29, 30, or 31 days ..... 1 calendar "
30 days (in computing interest)..... 1 month.
52 weeks and 1 day—12 cal. months..... 1 year.
365 days, 5 h., 48 m. and 49 sec. 1 solar year.

Circular.

60 seconds..... 1 minute.
60 minutes ..... 1 degree.
30 degrees ..... 1 sign.
90 degrees..... 1 quadrant.
4 quadrants—360 degrees..... 1 circle.

A convenient method of finding the difference in time between two places, is to notice their distance apart in degrees of longitude, and allow 4 minutes to each degree, based on the following CALCULATION:

1440 minutes..... 1 day,
or revolution of the earth.
1 revolution of the earth is 360 degrees.
Therefore, 1 degree..... 4 minutes.

Long.

3 barleycorns..... 1 inch—in.
12 inches..... 1 foot—ft.
3 feet ..... 1 yard—yd.
5½ yards ..... 1 rod—rd.
40 rods..... 1 furlong—fur.
8 furlongs ..... 1 mile.

Cloth.

2¼ inches..... 1 nail.
4 nails..... 1 quarter.
4 quarters..... 1 yard.

Miscellaneous.

3 inches ..... 1 palm.
4 inches ..... 1 hand.
6 inches ..... 1 span.
18 inches ..... 1 cubic.
21.8 inches..... 1 Bible cubic.
2½ feet..... 1 military pace.
3 feet..... 1 common "

Square.

144 sq. inches ..... 1 sq. foot.
9 sq. feet..... 1 sq. yard.
30¼ sq. yards..... 1 sq. rod.
40 sq. rods ..... 1 rood.
4 roods ..... 1 acre.

Surveyors'.

7.92 inches ..... 1 link.
25 links ..... 1 rod.
4 rods ..... 1 chain.
10 sq. chain—160 sq. rods ..... 1 acre.
640 acres ..... 1 sq. mile.

Cubic.

1728 cubic inches..... 1 cubic foot.
27 cubic feet..... 1 " yard.
128 cubic feet ..... 1 cord wood.
40 cubic feet..... 1 ton (shipping).
2150.42 cubic inches..... 1 standard bu.
268.8 cubic inches..... 1 standard gal.
1 cubic foot four-fifths of a bushel.

To find the number of bushels in a bin of any dimensions, find the number of cubic feet by multiplying the 3 dimensions of the bin in feet; deduct 1-5 and the result is the number of bus.

RATES OF INTEREST.

Showing How to Compute Interest on any Amount of Money at any Rate Per Cent.; Giving Interest on Moneys for Days, Months and Years.

On the following pages will be found several valuable Interest Tables, giving the principal legal rates of interest as adopted by the various States in the Union, and the means by which the interest, at any rate, on any amount of money, can be almost instantly computed.

By reference to the table, the time or number of days, months, and years, will be found at the top of the columns; and the amount of money upon which interest is computed, in the left hand column. Thus, if we wish to find the interest on $1,108 for one year, three months, and 29 days, at seven per cent., we trace from amounts towards the right, and from time, downwards; resulting as shown in the example below.

To find the interest for more than one year, multiply by the number of years. For $20, $40, $60, etc., multiply the interest on $10 by 2, 4, and so on. The same rule applies for hundreds or thousands. The interest at five per cent. is one-half of ten per cent.; hence, divide by 2. The interest at twelve per cent. is double six per cent.; hence, multiply by 2. Other rates will be found thus by division and multiplication.

EXAMPLE.

Interest on	$1000	for	1	year,	at	7	per	cent	$ 70 00
" "	100	"	1	"	"	7	"	"	7 00
" "	8	"	1	"	"	7	"	"	56
" "	1000	"	3	m'ths	"	7	"	"	17 50
" "	100	"	3	"	"	7	"	"	1 75
" "	8	"	3	"	"	7	"	"	14
" "	1000	"	29	days,	"	7	"	"	5 64
" "	100	"	29	"	"	7	"	"	56
" "	8	"	29	"	"	7	"	"	05
Interest on the amount									$103 20

Am't.	DAYS. 7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	MONTHS. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	YEAR 1
	INTEREST.																																		
$1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6
$2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
$3	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	6	8	9	11	12	14	15	17	18
$4	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
$5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	5	8	10	13	15	18	20	23	25	28	30
$6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	6	9	11	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
$7	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	35	39	42
$8	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
$9	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45	50	54
$10	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
$100	12	13	15	17	18	20	22	23	25	27	28	30	32	33	35	37	38	40	42	43	45	47	48	50	1.00	1.50	2.00	2.50	3.00	3.50	4.00	4.50	5.00	5.50	6.00
$1,000	1.17	1.33	1.50	1.67	1.83	2.00	2.17	2.33	2.50	2.67	2.83	3.00	3.17	3.33	3.50	3.67	3.83	4.00	4.17	4.33	4.50	4.67	4.83	5.00	10.00	15.00	20.00	25.00	30.00	35.00	40.00	45.00	50.00	55.00	60.00

SEVEN PER CENT.

Am't.	DAYS. 7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	MONTHS. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	YEAR 1
	INTEREST.																																		
$1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7
$2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14
$3	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	4	5	7	9	11	12	14	16	18	19	21
$4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	7	9	12	14	16	19	21	23	26	28
$5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	6	9	12	15	18	20	23	26	29	32	35
$6	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	35	39	42
$7	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	8	12	16	20	25	29	33	37	41	45	49
$8	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	9	14	19	23	28	33	37	42	47	51	56
$9	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	11	16	21	26	32	37	42	47	53	58	63
$10	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	12	18	23	29	35	41	47	53	48	64	70
$100	14	16	18	19	21	23	25	27	29	31	33	35	37	39	41	43	45	47	49	51	53	54	56	58	1.17	1.75	2.33	2.92	3.50	4.08	4.67	5.25	5.83	6.42	7.00
$1,000	1.36	1.56	1.75	1.94	2.14	2.33	2.53	2.72	2.92	3.11	3.31	3.50	3.69	3.89	4.08	4.28	4.47	4.67	4.86	5.06	5.25	5.44	5.64	5.83	11.67	17.50	23.33	29.17	35.00	40.83	46.67	52.50	58.33	64.17	70.00

INTEREST TABLES.—Eight Per Cent.

Am't.	DAYS. 7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	MONTHS. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	YEAR 1
	INTEREST.																																		
$1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	4	5	5	6	7	7	8
$2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	4	5	7	8	9	11	12	13	15	16
$3	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
$4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	5	8	11	13	16	19	21	24	27	29	32
$5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	10	13	17	20	23	27	30	33	37	40
$6	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
$7	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	9	14	19	23	28	33	37	42	47	51	56
$8	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	11	16	21	27	32	37	43	48	53	59	64
$9	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60	66	72
$10	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	7	13	20	27	33	40	47	53	60	67	73	80
$100	16	18	20	22	24	27	29	31	33	36	38	40	42	44	47	49	51	53	56	58	60	62	64	67	1.33	2.00	2.67	3.33	4.00	4.67	5.33	6.00	6 67	7.33	8.00
$1,000	1.56	1.78	2.00	2.22	2.44	2.67	2.89	3.11	3.33	3.56	3.78	4.00	4.22	4.44	4.67	4.89	5.11	5.33	5.56	5.78	6.00	6.22	6.44	6.67	13.33	20.00	26.67	33.33	40.00	46.67	53.33	60.00	66.67	73.33	80.00

TEN PER CENT.

Am't.	DAYS. 7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	MONTHS. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	YEAR 1
	INTEREST.																																		
$1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	8	9	10
$2	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	5	7	8	10	12	13	15	17	18	20
$3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	5	8	10	13	15	18	20	23	25	28	30
$4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	10	13	17	20	23	27	30	33	37	40
$5	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	8	13	17	21	25	29	33	38	42	46	50
$6	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
$7	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	12	18	23	29	35	41	47	53	58	64	70
$8	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	7	13	20	27	33	40	47	53	60	67	73	80
$9	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	8	15	23	30	38	45	53	60	68	75	83	90
$10	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	·	7	7	8	8	8	8	17	25	33	42	50	58	67	75	83	92	1.00
$100	19	22	25	28	31	33	36	39	42	44	47	50	53	56	58	61	64	67	69	72	75	78	81	83	1.67	2 50	3.33	4.17	5.00	5.83	6.67	7.50	8.33	9.17	10.00
$1,000	1.94	2.22	2.50	2.78	3.76	3.33	3.61	3.89	4.17	4.44	4.72	5.00	5.28	5.56	5.83	6.11	6.39	6.67	6.94	7.22	7.50	7.78	8.06	8.33	16.67	25.00	33.33	41.67	50.00	58.33	66.67	75.00	83.33	91.67	100.00

TABLE OF WAGES,

COMPUTED ON A BASIS OF TEN HOURS LABOR PER DAY.

Hours	$1.00	$1.50	$2.00	$2.50	$3.00	$3.50	$4.00	$4.50	$5.00	$5.50	$6.00	$6.50	$7.00	$7.50	$8.00	$9.00	$10.	$11.	$12
½	.01	.01¼	.01⅔	.02	.02½	.03	.03⅓	.03¾	.04 1-6	.04⅙	.05	.05½	.06	.06¼	.06⅔	.07½	.08⅓	.09	.10
1	.01⅔	.02½	.03⅓	.04 1-6	.05	.06	.06⅔	.07½	.08⅓	.09 1-6	.10	.11	.11⅔	.12½	.13⅓	.15	.16⅔	.18⅓	.20
2	.03⅓	.05	.06⅔	.08⅓	.10	.11⅔	.13⅓	.15	.16⅔	.18⅓	.20	.21⅔	.23⅓	.25	.26⅔	.30	.33⅓	.36⅔	.40
3	.05	.07½	.10	.12½	.15	.17½	.20	.22½	.25	.27½	.30	.32½	.35	.37½	.40	.45	.50	.55	.60
4	.06⅔	.10	.13⅓	.16⅔	.20	.23⅓	.26⅔	.30	.33⅓	.36⅔	.40	.43⅓	.46⅔	.50	.53⅓	.60	.66⅔	.73⅓	.80
5	.08⅓	.12½	.16⅔	.21	.25	.29 1-6	.33⅓	.37½	.41⅔	.46	.50	.54 1-6	.58⅓	.62½	.66⅔	.75	.83⅓	.91⅔	1.00
6	.10	.15	.20	.25	.30	.35	.40	.45	.50	.55	.60	.65	.70	.75	.80	.90	1.00	1.10	1.20
7	.11⅔	.17½	.23⅓	.29 1-6	.35	.41	.46⅔	.52½	.58⅓	.64 1-6	.70	.76	.81⅔	.87½	.93⅓	1.05	1.16⅔	1.28½	1.40
8	.13⅓	.20	.26⅔	.33⅓	.40	.46⅔	.53⅓	60	.66⅔	.72⅔	.80	.86⅔	.93⅓	1.00	1.06⅔	1.20	1.33⅓	1.46⅔	1.60
9	.15	.22½	.30	.37½	.45	.52½	.60	.67½	.75	.82½	.90	.97½	1.05	1.12½	1.20	1.35	1.50	1.65	1.80
Days																			
1	.16⅔	.25	.33⅓	.41⅔	.50	.58⅓	.66⅔	.75	.83⅓	.91⅔	1.00	1.08⅓	1.16⅔	1.25	1.33⅓	1.50	1.66⅔	1.83⅓	2.00
2	.33⅓	.50	.66⅔	.83⅓	1.00	1.16⅔	1.33⅓	1.50	1.66⅔	1.83⅓	2.00	2.16⅔	2.33⅓	2.50	2.66⅔	3.00	3.33⅓	3.66⅔	4.00
3	.50	.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1 75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.50	5.00	5.50	6.00
4	.66⅔	1.00	1.33⅓	1.66⅔	2.00	2.33⅓	2.66⅔	3.00	3.33⅓	3.66⅔	4.00	4.33⅓	4.66⅔	5.00	5.33⅓	6.00	6 66⅔	7.33⅓	8.00
5	.33⅓	1.25	1.66⅔	2.08⅓	2.50	2.91⅔	3.33⅓	3.75	4.16⅔	4.58⅓	5.00	5.41⅔	5.83⅓	6.25	6.66⅔	7 50	8.33⅓	9.16⅔	10.00
6	1.00	1.50	2.00	2.50	3.00	3.50	4.00	4.50	5.00	5.50	6.00	6.50	7.00	7.50	8.00	9.00	10.00	11.00	12.00

EXPLANATION.

The large figures at the top of the columns show the rate per week, while the smaller figures indicate the amount per hour or per day. Thus if it is desired to find the amont per hour when working for **$8.00** per week, we commence with the figure **1** in the left hand column under the head of " hours," and trace toward the right till we reach the column headed by **$8.00,** where we find 13⅓ cents, the equivalent of one hour's labor at $8.00 per week. In like manner we find t he price of several hour's one day, or several days.

To find wages at **$13, $14, $15. $16.** or more, per week, find the amount at **$6.50, $7, $7.50, $8.** etc., and multiply by **2.**

RICHES OF THE UNITED STATES.

In 1850, the value of the real and personal estate of the United States was about $7,000,000,000. By 1860 it had increased to over $16,0000,000,000. In 1870 it went over $30,000,000,000. This is more than quadrupling in two-thirds of a generation. The wealth of New York State alone is five times as much as it was ten years ago, and that of Pennsylvania twice as much.

PRACTICAL RULES FOR EVERY DAY USE.

How to find the gain or loss per cent. when the cost and selling price are given.

RULE.—Find the difference between the cost and selling price, which will be the gain or loss.

Annex two ciphers to the gain or loss, and divide it by the cost price; the result will be the gain or loss per cent.

How to change gold into currency.

RULE.—Multiply the given sum of gold by the price of gold.

How to change currency into gold.

Divide the amount in currency by the price of gold.

How to find each partner's share of the gain or loss in a copartnership business.

RULE.—Divide the whole gain or loss by the entire stock, the quotient will be the gain or loss per cent.

Multiply each partner's stock by this per cent., the result will be each one's share of the gain or loss.

How to find gross and net weight and price of hogs.

A short and simple method for finding the net weight, or price of hogs, when the gross weight or price is given, and vice versa.

NOTE.—It is generally assumed that the gross weight of Hogs diminished by 1-5 or 20 per cent. of itself gives the net weight, and the net weight increased by ¼ or 25 per cent. of itself, equals the gross weight.

To find the net weight or gross price.

Multiply the given number by .8 (tenths).

To find the gross weight or net price.

Divide the given number by .8 (tenths).

How to find the capacity of a granary, bin or wagon-bed.

RULE.—Multiply (by short method) the number of cubic feet by 6308, and point off ONE decimal place—the result will be the correct answer in bushels and tenths of a bushel.

For only an approximate answer, multiply the cubic feet by 8, and point off one decimal place.

How to find the contents of a corn-crib.

RULE.—Multiply the number of cubic feet by 54, short method, or by 4½ ordinary method, and point off ONE decimal place—the result will be the answer in bushels.

NOTE.—In estimating corn in the ear, the quality and the time it has been cribbed must be taken into consideration, since corn will shrink considerably during the winter and spring. This rule generally holds good for corn measured at the time it is cribbed, provided it is sound and clean.

How to find the contents of a cistern or tank

RULE.—Multiply the square of the mean diameter by the depth, (all in feet) and this product by 5681 (short method), and point off ONE decimal place—the result will be the contents in barrels of 31½ gallons.

How to find the contents of a barrel or cask.

RULE.—Under the square of the mean diameter, write the length (all in inches) in REVERSED order so that its UNITS will fall under the TENS; multiply by short method, and this product again by 430; point off one decimal place, and the result will be the answer in wine gallons.

How to measure boards.

RULE.—Multiply the length (in feet) by the width (in inches) and divide the product by 12—the result will be the contents in square feet.

How to measure scantlings, joists, planks, sills, etc.

RULE.—Multiply the width, the thickness, and the length together (the width and thickness in inches, and the length in feet), and divide the product by 12—the result will be square feet.

How to find the number of acres in a body of land.

RULE.—Multiply the length by the width (in rods), and divide the product by 160 (carrying the division to 2 decimal places if there is a remainder); the result will be the answer in acres and hundredths.

When the opposite sides of a piece of land are of unequal length, add them together and take one-half for the mean length or width.

How to find the number of square yards in a floor or Wall.

RULE.—Multiply the length by the width or height (in feet), and divide the product by 9, the result will be square yards.

How to find the number of bricks required in a building.

RULE.—Multiply the number of cubic feet by 22½.

The number of cubic feet is found by multiplying the length, height and thickness (in feet) together.

Bricks are usually made 8 inches long, 4 inches wide and 2 inches thick; hence, it requires 27 bricks to make a cubic foot without mortar, but it is generally assumed that the mortar fills 1-6 of the space.

How to find the number of shingles required in a roof.

RULE.—Multiply the number of square feet in the roof by 8, if the shingles are exposed 4½ inches, or by 7 1-5 if exposed 5 inches.

To find the number of square feet, multiply the length of the roof by twice the length of the rafters.

To find the length of the rafters, at ONE-FOURTH pitch, multiply the width of the building by .56 (hundredths); at ONE-THIRD pitch, by .6 (tenths); at TWO-FIFTHS pitch, by .64 (hundredths); at ONE-HALF pitch, by .71 (hundredths). This gives the length of the rafters from the apex to the end of the wall, and whatever they are to project must be taken into consideration.

NOTE.—By ¼, or ⅓ pitch is meant that the apex or comb of the roof is to be ¼ or ⅓ the width of the building higher than the walls or base of the rafters.

PRACTICAL RULES—Continued.

Farmers and others by adopting the following simple and ingenious contrivance, may always carry with them the scale to construct a correct yard measure.

Take a foot rule, and commencing at the base of the little finger of the left hand, mark the quarters of the foot on the outer borders of the left arm, pricking in the marks with indelible ink.

To find how many rods in length will make an acre, the width being given.

RULE.—Divide 160 by the width, and the quotient will be the answer.

How to find the number of acres in any plot of land, the number of rods being given.

RULE.—Divide the number of rods by 8, multiply the quotient by 5, and remove the decimal point two places to the left.

The diameter being given, to find the circumference.

RULE.—Multiply the diameter by 3 1-7.

How to find the diameter when the circumference is given.

RULE.—Divide the circumference by 3 1-7

To find how many solid feet a round stick of timber of the same thickness throughout, will contain when squared.

RULE.—Square half the diameter in inches, multiply by 2, multiply by the length in feet, and divide the product by 144.

General rule for measuring timber, to find the solid contents in feet.

RULE.—Multiply the depth in inches by the breadth in inches, and then multiply by the length in feet, and divide by 144.

To find the number of feet of timber in trees with the bark on.

RULE.—Multiply the square of one-fifth of the circumference, in inches, by twice the length, in feet, and divide by 144. Deduct 1-10 to 1-15 according to the thickness of the bark.

Howard's new rule for computing interest.

RULE.—The reciprocal of the rate is the time for which the interest on any sum of money will be shown by simply removing the decimal point two places to the left; for ten times that time, remove the point one place to the left; for 1-10 of the same time, remove the point three places to the left.

Increase or diminish the results to suit the time given.

NOTE.—The reciprocal of the rate is found by inverting the rate; thus 3 per cent. per month, inverted, becomes ⅓ of a month, or 10 days.

When the rate is expressed by one figure, always write it thus: 3-1, three ones.

Rule for converting English into American currency.

Multiply the pounds, with the shillings and pence stated in decimals, by 400 plus the premium in fourths, and divide the product by 90.

GENERAL RULES.

The circumference of a circle equals the diameter multiplied by 3.1416, the ratio of the circumference to the diameter.

The area of a circle equals the square of the radius multiplied by 3.1416.

The area of a circle equals one-quarter of the diameter multiplied by the circumference.

The radius of a circle equals the circumference multiplied by 0.159155.

The radius of a circle equals the square roo of the area multiplied by 0.56419.

The diameter of a circle equals the circumference multiplied by 0.31831.

The diameter of a circle equals the square root of the area mul iplied by 1.12838.

The side of an inscribed equilateral triangle equals the diameter of the circle multiplied by 0.86.

The side of an inscribed square equals the diameter of a circle multiplied by 0.7071.

The side of an inscribed square equals the circumference of the circle multiplied by 0.225.

The circumference of a circle multiplied by 0.282 equals one side of a square of the same area.

The side of a square equals the diameter o a circle of the same area multiplied by 0.8862.

The area of a triangle equals the base multiplied by one-half its altitude.

The area of an ellipse equals the product of both diameters and .7854.

The solidity of a sphere equals its surface multiplied by one-sixth of its diameter.

The surface equals the product of the diameter and circumference.

The surface of a sphere equals the square of the diameter multiplied by 3.1416.

The surface equals the square of the circumference, multiplied by 0.3183.

The solidity of a sphere equals the cube of the diameter multiplied by 0.5236.

The diameter of a sphere equals the square root of the surface multiplied by 0.56419.

The square root of the surface of a sphere multiplied by 1.772454 equals the circumference.

The diameter of a sphere equals the cube root of its solidity multipiled by 1.2407.

The circumference of a sphere equals the cube root of its solidity multiplied by 3.8978.

The side of an inscribed cube equals the radius multiplied by 1.1547.

The solidity of a cone or pyramid equals the area of its base multiplied by one-third of its altitude.

PRACTICAL RULES—*Continued.*

How to keep accounts.

Every farmer and mechanic, whether he does much or little business, should keep a record of his transactions in a clear and systematic manner. For the benefit of those who have not had the opportunity of acquiring a primary knowledge of the principles of book-keeping, we here present a simple form of keeping accounts which is easily comprehended, and well adapted to record the business transactions of farmers, mechanics and laborers.

1875.		JOHN SMITH.	Dr.		Cr.	
January	10	To 7 bushels Wheat ---------- at $1.25	8	75		
"	17	By Shoeing span of Horses ----------			2	50
February	4	To 14 bushels Oats ---------- at $ .45	6	30		
"	4	To 5 lbs. Butter ---------- at $ .25	1	25		
March	8	By new Harrow ----------			18	00
"	8	By sharpening 2 Plows ----------				40
"	13	By new Double-Tree ----------			2	25
"	27	To Cow and Calf ----------	48	00		
April	9	To half ton of Hay ----------	6	25		
"	9	By Cash ----------			25	00
May	6	By repairing Corn-Planter ----------			4	75
"	24	To one Sow with Pigs ----------	17	50		
July	4	By Cash, to balance account ----------			35	15
			$88	05	$88	05

1875.		HENRY JONES.	Dr.		Cr.	
March	21	By 3 days' Labor ---------- at $1.25			3	75
"	21	To 2 Shoats ---------- at 3.00	6	00		
"	23	To 18 bushels Corn ---------- at .45	8	10		
May	1	By 1 month's Labor ----------			25	00
"	1	To Cash ----------	10	00		
June	19	By 8 days' Mowing ---------- at $1.50			12	00
"	26	To 50 lbs. Flour ----------	2	75		
July	10	To 27 lbs. Meat ---------- at $ .10	2	70		
"	29	By 9 days' Harvesting ---------- at 2.00			18	00
August	12	By 6 days' Labor ---------- at 1.50			9	00
"	12	To Cash ----------	20	00		
September	1	To Cash to balance account ----------	18	20		
			$67	75	$67	75

How to reckon the cost of hay.

RULE.—Multiply the number of pounds by half the price per ton, and remove the decimal point three places to the left.

How to measure grain.

RULE.—Level the grain; acertain the space it occupies in cubic feet; multiply the number of cubic feet by 8, and point off one place to the left.

NOTE.—Exactness requires the addition to every three hundred bushels of one extra bushel.

The foregoing rule may be used for finding the number of gallons, by multiplying the number of bushels by 8.

If the corn in the box is in the ear, divide the answer by 2, to find the number of bushels of shelled corn, because it requires 2 bushels of ear corn to make 1 of shelled corn.

Rapid rules for measuring land without instruments.

In measuring land, the first thing to ascertain is the contents of any given plot in square yards; then, given, the number of yards, find out the number of rods and acres.

The most ancient and simplest measure of distance is a step. Now, an ordinary-sized man can train himself to cover one yard at a stride, on the average with sufficient accuracy for ordinary purposes.

To make use of this means of measuring distances, it is essential to walk in a straight line; to do this, fix the eye on two objects in a line straight ahead, one comparatively near, the other remote; and, in walking, keep these objects constantly in line.

PRACTICAL RULES—Continued.

U. S. GOVERNMENT LAND MEASURE

A township—36 sections, each a mile square.

A section—640 acres.

A quarter section, half a mile square—160 acres.

An eighth section, half a mile long, north and south, and a quarter of a mile wide—80 acres.

A sixteenth section, a quarter of a mile square—40 acres.

The sections are all numbered 1 to 36, commencing at the north-east corner.

The sections are divided into quarters, which are named by the cardinal points. The quarters are divided in the same way. The description of a forty acre lot would read: The south half of the west half of the south-west quarter of section 1 in township 24, north of range 7 west, or as the case might be; and sometimes will fall short and sometimes overrun the number of acres it is supposed to contain.

The nautical mile is 795 4-5 feet longer than the common mile.

The table of greatest tension load for safety, a bar, one inch square, is stated as follows:

Best Swede's Iron	76,400
Brass	19,600
Hemp Rope	19,600
Ivory	15,700
Oak	7,850
Elm or Ash	6,070

SURVEYORS' MEASURE.

7 92-100 inches	make	1 link.
25 links	"	1 rod.
4 rods	"	1 chain.
80 chains	"	1 mile.

NOTE.—A chain is 100 links, equal to 4 rods or 66 feet.

Shoemakers formerly used a subdivision of the inch called a barleycorn; three of which made an inch.

Horses are measured directly over the fore-feet, and the standard of measure is four inches—called a hand.

In Biblical and other old measurements, the term span is sometimes used, which is a length of nine inches.

The sacred cubit of the Jews was 24.024 inches in length.

The common cubit of the Jews was 21.704 inches in length.

A pace is equal to a yard or 36 inches.

A fathom is equal to 6 feet.

A league is three miles, but its length is variable for it is strictly speaking a nautical term, and should be three geographical miles, equal to 3.45 statute miles, but when used on land, three statute miles are said to be a league.

In cloth measure an aunze is equal to 1¼ yards, or 45 inches.

An Amsterdam ell is equal to 26.796 in.

A Trieste ell is equal to 25.284 inches.

A Brabant ell is equal to 27.116 inches.

GREAT FIRES OF THE WORLD.

CITIES.		Date.	Loss.
Rome	city nearly destroyed	A. D. 64	
Moscow		September, 1812	$150,000,000
London	2-3 of the city destroyed	September, 1666	
New York		December, 1835	15,000,000
New York		July, 1845	6,000,000
Pittsburg		April, 1845	10,000,000
Charleston		April, 1838	3,000,000
Nantucket		July, 1846	800,000
Albany		August, 1848	3,000,000
St. Louis		May, 1849	3,000,000
Philadelphia		July, 1850	1,000,000
San Francisco		May, 1851	3,500,000
San Francisco		June, 1851	3,000,000
Stockton, Cal.		May, 1851	1,500,000
Nevada, Cal.		March, 1851	1,300,000
Montreal, Canada		July, 1852	5,000,000
Syracuse		November, 1856	1,000,000
Chicago		September, 1857	500 000
Chicago		October, 1859	500,000
Chicago		August, 1866	500,000
Chicago		November, 1866	500,000
Chicago		January, 1868	3,000,000
Wisconsin		October, 1871	6,000,000
Great Chicago Fire		October, 1871	206,000,000
Great Fire in Quebec			2,500,000
Boston	9, 10, 11, 18 and 20	November, 1872	125,000,000
Virginia City, Nev.	nearly destroyed	October, 1875	2,000,000

THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH CABLES.

There are now five cables connecting Europe and America; three running from Newfoundland to Ireland, one from Brest, France, to Duxbury, Mass., by way of St. Pierre, and the direct cable from Ireland to Rye Beach, New Hampshire. The cables from Newfoundland are about 1,900 miles long, the direct cable 3,060 miles, and the French cable 3,330 miles in length.

DEAD LETTERS.

The statistics of the Dead Letter service are of quite romantic interest. The number of dead letters handled during the year 1875 was about 4,500,000. Of these, 31,750 contained money aggregating $61,000; 14,225 letters contained drafts, notes, and bills of exchange of the value of $2,997,847; 135,027 letters contained samples of merchandise, postage stamps and miscellaneous articles; 3,740,000 contained nothing of value.

THE RAILROADS OF INDIA.

In 1875 there were in operation in India, 6,273 miles of railroad. Of these 727 are double and 5,546 single; 5,686 are constructed five feet, 6 inches gauge, and 587 on the metre guage. A further length of 2,158 miles is in course of construction.

The largest and most expensive railway bridges in the world have been erected in India They are chiefly constructed with iron girders on piers and vary 1,000 feet to 9,000 feet in length and from $16,000 to $460,000 in cost.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

The Suez Canal connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, shortening the route to India from England and America more than 5,000 miles. It was commenced in 1859 and completed in 1869. Length, 100 miles; average breadth, 329 feet; depth, 26 feet. Cost in gold, $65,000,000. Distances: English Channel to Calcutta, via Cape Good Hope, 13,000, via canal, 8,000. New York to Calcutta, via Cape Good Hope, 14,560 miles, via canal, 9,500.

The English government purchased the interest of the Khedive of Egypt in the canal in 1875, for $20,000,000.

GOLD AND SILVER COINAGE.

The report of Dr. Linderman, Director of the Mint, shows that the amount of gold and silver deposits and purchases for the year ending June 30, 1875, was, gold deposits, $43,152,584.50; silver deposits and purchases, $18,304,406.07; total, $61,456,990.57. The total gold coinage was, 1,739,062 pieces, of the value of $33,553,965; total silver coinage was, 22,823,216 pieces, of the value of $10,070,368; coinage of minor pieces was, 14,629,500, value $230,375. The total coinage was, 34,191,778 pieces, of the value of $43,854,708.

CHILDREN IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

There are enrolled in the public schools of the United States, 8,000,000 children. In the last fiscal year, 1875, the average daily attendance was, 4,500,000. Thirty-seven States and eleven Territories report an increase in the public school income of $1,232,000, and in attendance of children, 164,000. The total sum raised during the year by taxation was, $82,000,000 and the cost of public education was about, $74,000,000.

CONVERSATION OF MEN OF GENIUS.

TASSO'S conversation was neither gay nor brilliant. DANTE was either taciturn or satirical. BUTLER was either sullen or biting. GRAY seldom talked or smiled. HOGARTH and SWIFT were very absent-minded in company. MILTON was very unsociable, and even irritable, when pressed into conversation. KIRWAN, though copious and eloquent in public addresses, was meagre and dull in colloquial discourse. VIRGIL was heavy in conversation. LA FONTAINE appeared heavy, coarse and stupid—he could not speak and describe what he had just seen; but then he was the model of poetry. CHAUCER'S silence was more agreeable than his conversation. DRYDEN'S conversation was slow and dull; his humor saturnine and reserved. CORNEILLE, in conversation, was so insipid that he never failed in wearying; he did not even speak correctly that language of which he was such a master. BEN JONSON used to sit silent in company, and suck *his* wine and *their* humors. SOUTHEY was stiff, sedate and wrapped up in asceticism. ADDISON was good company with his intimate friends, but in mixed company he preserved his dignity by a stiff and reserved silence. FOX, in conversation, never flaggedy his animation and variety were inexhaustible. Dr. BENTLEY was loquacious, as was also GROTIUS. GOLDSMITH "wrote like an angel, and talked like poor Poll." BURKE was entertaining, enthusiastic, and interesting in conversation. CURRAN was a convivial deity. LEIGH HUNT was "like a pleasant stream" in conversation. CARLYLE doubts, objects and constantly demurs. In our own country MARGARET FULLER was a fluent, inspiring talker, discoursing always to a group of admiring friends. EMERSON has the charm of a good listener, and is quite as willing to be talked to as to talk. Dr. HOLMES is quick, vivacious and sparkling. LOWELL is famous for the rarest wit and good fellowship not often found even among poets. WHITTIER talks in his own quiet, gentle way, and is rather a companion for quiet hours, than the dinner table or the drawing-room. And we may add, in conclusion, great talkers are very seldom good conversationalists.

WONDERFUL GOLD AND SILVER MINES.

The Consolidated Virginia Mine of Nevada yields between $1,700,000 and $1,800,000 in gold and silver per month, of which is distributed to the stockholders a monthly dividend of $1,089,000. There would be no difficulty in increasing the product to $2,000,000 monthly, but it is deemed prudent to work the mine to the capacity of ten dollars per share monthly, in order that this magnificent return to the share holders may continue for years to come. The people of Nevada have become so accustomed to immense yields in the mines of the Comstock—the dividend in the aggregate almost equaling the entire market value of the mine from which they are disbursed in one or two years—that even the gigantic achievements of the Consolidated Virginia excite in them but little wonder. Nevertheless, the monthly yield of the mine is the most wonderful of all the world's history of gold and silver mining. When it is considered that a single mine is producing bullion at the rate of about $20,000,000 yearly, and dividing among its stockholders nearly $13,000,000 per annum, the wealth and magnitude of the deposit may be better realized. When it is remembered that a single mine is turning out gold and silver at the rate of $60,000 daily, the mind becomes almost bewildered in contemplating the possible product of the Comstock, when a dozen other mines shall be added to the list of dividend-paying companies.

HISTORY OF LETTER-PRESS PRINTING.

John Guttenberg invented letter-press printing about 1455. William Caxton carried the new art to England in 1474, and printed "The Game of Chess," the first book in London. The introduction of printing at other important points was as follows: Paris, 1470; Florence, 1471; Antwerp, 1476; Geneva, 1478; Vienna, 1482; Stockholm, 1483; Copenhagen, 1493 Cracow, Munich and Amsterdam, 1500; Edinburg, 1507; Dublin, 1551; and Mexico, 1669. Seventy years later, in 1739, the first printing press in the American colonies was set up at Cambridge, Massachusetts. It was procured by subscription from Amsterdam, and was given to the college, with a fount of type of forty-nine pounds; so that it may be assumed to be the beginning of the present "University Press." William Penn brought William Bradford, printer, to Pennsylvania in 1686, and established a press in Philadelphia. In 1692, Mr. Bradford was invited to establish a printing press in New York, with the inducement of forty pounds a year and privilege of printing on his own account, which he accepted, and the first printed issue in that province is a proclamation, bearing date of that year. The first printing west of the Mississippi was done in 1808, by Jacob Hindle. Michigan had a press in 1809, and Mississippi in 1810.

THE WHISKY TRAFFIC.

The whisky traffic amounts to $1,583,491,815 annually. This is twice as much as the flour, and the meal, and the cotton goods, and the woolen goods, and the boots, and the shoes, and the clothing, and the newspapers of the country cost. Or, to put it in another form, we could, by dispensing with whisky, board and clothe very decently another nation as big as ours, and have just as much for ourselves as we now do, and have none of the evil effects of whisky to combat. Men might see the magnitude of this whisky leak better if they were to remember that one-half of the tax they pay is on account of the whisky traffic. If, therefore, as you walk up to the clerk's desk and count out $200 to pay a year's tax, could you do away with whisky, the clerk would count out $100 and hand it back to you. If the money that is expended on account of whisky were appled to the payment of our immense National Debt, it would be entirely liquidated in less than three years.

WHISKY'S WORK IN NEW YORK.

Eight thousand places are licensed for the sale of liquors in this city. Most of them dispense the vilest poisons. Many are music-halls, worse than the old Broadway concert-saloons, and frequented by the same class of scapegraces who were ruined in those dens. To some are attached small gambling-rooms, where scores of habitual criminals and vagrants gather nightly to prey upon one another, and concoct all manner of deviltries. At night the windows of these places have the fascination of basilisks' eyes to thousands upon thousands of the restless, thirsty, discontented poor. Some have money to buy a pint or a glass of the stuff in bottles labelled before him, but can illy afford it. Others have not enough to pay for a night's lodging. Upon this multitude descends the terrible temptation to *steal* that they may drink—that they may buy an hour or two of blind forgetfulness. Every day's arrests show part of the direct result of this temptation. If MAYHEW'S estimate be correct, that intoxicating liquors are an agent in three-fourths of the crimes committed in large cities, then the effects of bad liquor and of longing for bad liquor in New York city, are, according to the police statistics, something fearful. Of the 83,514 arrests in 1872, including 63 for homicide, 459 for burglary, 31 for arson, 67 for forgery, 119 for highway robbery, 1503 for grand larceny, 36 for robbery, the rest for every kind of criminal offences, nearly 70,000 were traceable to persons, more or less addicted to drink.

MODES OF SALUTATION.

In the United States, one friend meeting another asks, "How do you do" and then passes on *instanter* to some other topic, being careful not to pause a moment for an answer to his inquiry as to his friend's health. A pump-handle shake of the hand generally precedes the inquiry.

In England, the usual mode of greeting is a hearty shake of the hand, with a "Good morning, sir; how do you do?"

The usual salutation at Cairo is, "How do you sweat?" a dry, hot skin being a sure indication of a destructive ephermal fever.

Greenlanders have none, and laugh at the idea of one person being superior to another.

Islanders, near the Philippines, take a person's hand or foot and rub it over their faces.

Laplanders apply their noses against the person they salute very strongly.

In the Sraits of the Sound they raise the left foot of the person addressed, pass it gently overthe right leg, and thence to the face.

The inhabitants of the Philippines bend very low, placing their hands on their cheeks, and raise one foot in the air, with the knee bent.

The Dutch, who are considered polite, have a morning salutation, common among all classes, "Smaakelykeeten," "May you eat a hearty dinner." Another is, "Hoe waart uwe?" "How do you sail?" adopted, no doubt, in the earlier periods of the Republic, when they were all navigators and fisherman.

Some author has observed, in contrasting the haughty Spaniard with the frivolous Frenchman, that the proud, steady gait and inflexible solemnity of the former were expressed in his mode of salutation, "Comic esta?" "How do you stand?" While the "Comment vous portez-vous?" "How do you carry yourself?" was equally expressive of the gay motion and incessant action of the latter.

In some parts of Africa a young woman, an intended bride, brings a little water in a calabash, and, kneeling down before her lover, desires him to wash his hands. When he has done this the girl, with a tear of joy sparkling in her eye, drinks the water. This is considered the greatest proof she can give him of her fidelity and attachment.

The Japanese take off a slipper, and the people of Arracun their sandals, in the street, and their stockings in the house, when they salute.

The Negro kings on the coast of Africa salute each other by snapping the middle finger three times.

The inhabitants of Carmine, when they show particular attachment, open a vein, and present their blood to the friend, as a beverage.

In Otaheite they rub their noses together

THE PENSION BUREAU.

Thirty Millions of Dollars Paid Annually to 234,821 *Pensioners.*

Commissioner of Pensions, in his annual report for 1875, says that the number of pensioners added to the rolls during the last fiscal year was 11,557, and the number dropped, by reason of death, reenlistment, remarriage, expiration of minors' pensions, or the discovery of fraud, was 12,977, making a net decrease of 1,420. The number of pensions increased was 15,561. The total number of pensioners borne on the rolls on June 30, 1875, was 234,821.

Thirteen widows of Revolutionary soldiers who were married prior to the year 1,800, and 366 married subsequent to that date, are still borne on the rolls. In 1871 the average rate of pension paid to the army invalid pensioners annually was $89.18; in 1872, $90.26; in 1873, $96.46; in 1874, $98.14; and in 1875, $103.91, or $8.65 per month. The rates vary from $1 to $50 per month.

The total disbursements of the Pension Bureau during the last fiscal year were $29,683,116.63 leaving a balance from the appropriations of $371,883.31, which has been covered into the Treasuary. The appropriations for the current fiscal year were: for army pensions, $29,500,000, and for navy pensions, $500,000. The Commissioner is of opinion that unless there is some further liberalizing legislation by Congress, an appropriation of $29,000,000 will be sufficient for the payment of pensions for the next fiscal year.

BIBLE CURIOSITIES.

The Bible contains 3,586,489 letters, 773,692 words, 31,173 verses, 1,189 chapters, and 66 books. The word "and" occurs 46,277 times. The word "Lord" occurs 1,855 times. The word "Reverend" occurs but once, which is in the 9th verse of the 111th Psalm. The middle verse is the 8th verse of the 118th Psalm. The 21st verse of the 7th chapter of Ezra contains all the letters in the alphabet except the letter J. The finest chapter to read is the 26th chapter of the Acts of the Apostles. The 19th chapter of II. Kings and the 37th chapter of Isaiah are alike. The longest verse is the 9th verse of the 8th chapter of Esther. The shortest verse is the 35th verse of the 11th chapter of St. John. The 8th, 15th, 21st and 31st verses of the 107th Psalm are alike. Each verse of the 136th Psalm end alike. There are no words or names of more than six syllables.

THE WOMEN OF EUROPE AND AMERICA.

The French women, in face and physique, are deficient as models of female form and beauty. The average height is about two inches below that of our women. They have short arms and legs, with rather long bodies, not remarkable for symmetry; are generally brunettes, with high cheeks, low foreheads, heads thick at the base of the brain, heavy lower jaws, large mouths, black hair and burning black eyes. The French woman considers her life one of chance or fate, and her bearing impresses you with an idea that she is peculiarly a child of romance and destiny.

In all that pertains to the most profound depths of woman's art, she has no equal. In elegant simplicity of apparel she is without a rival. In action and gesture she is graceful and eloquent. An artist born, she does everything she undertakes with more grace and skill than any other woman in the world. She wears her love and changes it as easily and with as charming elegance as she does her silks and laces. Her knowledge of men and her tact in fooling them "to the top of their bent," are remarkable, and only a man of ice and iron can keep her out of his pocket.

Of all the nationalities that meet in the gay capital, her favorite is the Russian, because she regards him as the most easily duped and the most lavish of his money. The American stands next in her favor, and the Englishman third. The women are certainly superior to the men of France, and seem to admire all foreigners, except Germans, more than they do Frenchmen. They shrug their shoulders when asked their opinion of the German and intimate that he is a hard master.

In the dance they are wonderfully graceful, and as active as cats, though they do not always light on their feet when they fall. They are perfect mistresses of light, frothy, gossiping conversation, being always gay, playful, vivacious, and very often brilliant and witty. They are not distinguished for domestic virtues. The French home, especially in cities, is seldom cheered with the light of children's joy and love.

As to the peasant women of Germany, it is hard to contemplate them as a class, and believe they are descendants from a mother who once shared the delightful fruits and beautiful flowers of Paradise with man. All trace and memory of such a lot seems to have been lost in a bitter inheritance of unwomanly toil. Time out of mind, Germany has been the battle ground of Europe in time of war, and a vast camp even in time of peace. Her army is now on a peace footing, yet 1,500,000 of her young men are soldiers constantly employed in drilling and fighting sham battles.

The land is poor, and yields the necessaries of life with reluctance. To arm, support, and clothe a vast army, maintain an idle aristocracy in luxury, and feed a dense population, the women are forced to work in the fields like dumb animals. The best products of their toil go to maintain the army and the aristocracy. Compelled to do the work of men, and live on coarse, scanty food, they become coarse and clownish, and dejected in appearance—objects of pity rather than admiration. Their condition is a shocking example of the inhumanity and cruelty of unrestrained power in arbitrary governments.

Elegance of attire, grace in motion, social culture and tact, love, romance, and poetry, are as foreign to the life of many a German woman, as if she was a beast of burden.

In rugged, homely virtues they command our profoundest veneration. As wives, they are faithful, patient, obedient. As mothers, they are kind and devoted to their children, and more assiduous than any other mothers in training their offspring in the practical labors and duties of life.

German children do credit to the natural beauty of the race, and it is saddening to look upon a bevy of pretty German maidens, and think how soon their gayety and their robust charms must be blighted by drudgery. But the sons of these hard-worked Germen mothers develop into the finest and most stalwart specimens of physical manhood you will see anywhere in Europe. That the German women are not eminent for good looks and social attractions is because they are crushed and almost unsexed by the cold and iron hand of oppression, which in all governments falls heaviest on the weakest and those who are least qualified by nature to bear it.

The women of England are the life and light of those happy homes which are the great social feature of English life. The English women are loyal and obedient, and never doubt for a moment that the Englishman is, and of right ought to be, the veritable lord of creation. They like their own countrymen better than they do the men of any other race or country. To them they look for chivalry, support, and protection. And an Englishman's home with his wife and children, is his castle, which he will protect and defend with the last drop of his blood.

Consequently the English woman's life is in her home and children, and she generally thinks that the more she has of them the greater blessing she is to her lord and to the nation. He is proud to be the father of a numerous progeny, and points to his sturdy, well-bred youngsters as the best indication of his manhood and patriotism. Statesmen, historians, philosophers, novelists, and poets have loved to indicate the English home, adorned with women and children, as the chief source of the power and glory of the British Empire. One of her poets says:

"Without your hopes, without your fears,
Without the home that plighted love endears,
Without the smile from partial beauty won,
O, what were man? a world without a sun.

The English woman's features are apt to be interesting as indications of strength of character rather than as models of harmony and beauty. She has a high forehead, with the volume of the brain above the base, which is not very heavy, limbs rather long and big-boned, a substantial body, and almost perfect bust. In action and gesture she is not remarkable for elegance and grace. In conversation she is earnest and sympathetic, but there, as in dress, she has infinitely less of womanly art, and tact than the French woman.

In her relations with Government she has such faith in the men and the wisdom of Parliament, that she yields a cheerful obedience to the laws of primogeniture, and appears to glory in the thought that her legal existance is merged in that of her husband.

The girl who is reared under the kindly influence of an average British home has developed to a high degree the best and most lovely traits and qualities of woman's nature. She is modest and timid to a fault with strangers, but when by manly courtesy you have gained her confidence, she is as natural and kind as a child. Generally she has a soft and rather plaintive voice, with soft blue eyes, and when the light of her pure life beams upon you, she inspires you, if not with "the grand passion," at least with sentiments of the sweetest and purest friendship that can animate the heart of man. It is from this domestic life of the English woman that novelists have drawn their most beautiful characters, and poets their most inspiring themes.

The people of the United States are now so heterogenous and inhabit so vast a country that it is difficult to find any prevailing type of American women for a comparison with those of other lands. In the descendants of the old colonial stock, the national type of the American woman was as distinctly marked as that of the wives and daughters of the English squire, especially in the agricultural States of the West and South. The New Englanders were always so commercial and migratory that with them home and family traditions were less appreciated than in the agricultural states. It is in the domestic relations of hospitable, rural homes that woman's influence is chiefly felt and best developed.

In our early history as a people, the American home was the abode of honor and manly courage in the men, and virtue and womanly dignity were the invariable traits of the women. Old men sigh now and say that the State is corrupt because the family has been corrupted; that life in hotels and city boarding houses has to a great extent destroyed the influence of the family altar. But the traveler abroad soon finds that in spite of the degeneracy of our social life the women of America are still the most virtuous in the world.

He will also find that from the agricultural and planting regions have sprung a numerous type of women superior to any that ever existed in any other age or country in the world. From a mixture of the noblest Caucasian races they have derived a symmetry of form, a grace of action, and a beauty of feature which are now the wonder and the envy of Europe.

An earlier and higher social culture renders the American girl in good circumstances the brightest and happiest human being on the face of the earth. From the nature of our political institutions and social customs, self-reliance, individualism and social tact are developed, to excess, perhaps, in our daughters. An American girl of 12 years knows more of social life than an English girl of 20—is better versed in the ways of the world, the art of entertaining, and all that can assist her in achieving social triumphs.

The great trouble is, that the American women are becoming too much women of the world; that social triumphs are turning their heads; that home life is too much neglected, to the great danger of domestic virtue, and the great detriment of that corner-stone of free government, a happy, well-ordered family circle.

RULES OF CONDUCT.

We cannot do better than quote the valuable injunctions of that excellent woman, Mrs. Fry, who combined in her character and conduct all that is truly excellent in woman: 1. I never lose any time,—I do not think that time lost which is spent in amusement or recreation some part of each day; but always be in the habit of being employed. 2. Never err the least in truth. 3. Never say an ill thing of a person when thou canst say a good thing of him; not only speak charitably, but *feel* so. 4. Never be irritable or unkind to anybody. 5. Never indulge thyself in luxuries that are not necessary. 6 Do all things with consideration, and when thy path to act right is most difficult, feel confidence in that Power which alone is able to assist thee, and exert thy own powers as far as they go.

SURVEYORS' SQUARE MEASURE.

625 square links.....make 1 square pole.
16 square poles..... " 1 square chain.
10 square chains..... " 1 acre.
640 acres..... " 1 square mile.

NOTE.—In most of the Western States where all land was laid out by the Government, all titles except in city lots are passed by description as under the Government survey, and there a square of six miles or 36 square miles make one township.

IN CUBIC OR SOLID MEASURE.

1,728 cubic inches.....make 1 cubic foot.
27 cubic feet..... " 1 cubic yard.

In measuring wood, 128 cubic feet make one cord A cord foot is one foot in length of a pile of wood cut four feet in length and piled four feet high, being 16 cubic feet; 8 cord feet make 1 cord.

TABLE OR METHOD FOR ASCERTAINING ANY PERSON'S AGE OR NAME.

1ST.	2D.	3D.	4TH.	5TH.	6TH.	FIRST.	SECOND.	THIRD.	FOURTH.	FIFTH.	SIXTH.
1	2	4	8	16	32	Adam.	Albert.	Andrew.	Barbara.	Eli.	Kate.
3	3	5	9	17	33	Amos.	Amos.	Alice.	Charles.	Enos.	Levi.
5	6	6	10	18	34	Alice.	Anna.	Anna.	Caroline.	Emma.	Louis.
7	7	7	11	19	35	Benjamin.	Benjamin.	Benjamin.	Clara.	Frederic.	Laura.
9	10	12	12	20	36	Charles.	Caroline.	Daniel.	Daniel.	Fanny.	Lydia.
11	11	13	13	21	37	Clara.	Clara.	David.	David.	George.	Lizzie.
13	14	14	14	22	38	David.	Dinah.	Dinah.	Dinah.	Henry.	Martin.
15	15	15	15	23	39	Edward.	Edward.	Edward.	Edward	Harriet.	Moses.
17	18	20	24	24	40	Enos.	Emma.	Fanny.	Isaac.	Isaac.	Mary.
19	19	21	25	25	41	Frederic.	Frederic.	George.	Ida.	Ida.	Martha.
21	22	22	26	26	42	George.	Henry.	Henry.	Jacob.	Jacob.	Maggie.
23	23	23	27	27	43	Harriet.	Harriet.	Harriet.	James.	James.	Noah.
25	26	28	28	28	44	Ida.	Jacob.	John.	John.	John.	Oliver.
27	27	29	29	29	45	James.	James.	Joseph.	Joseph.	Joseph.	Peter.
29	30	30	30	30	46	Joseph.	Jane.	Jane.	Jane.	Jane.	Phebe.
31	31	31	31	31	47	Julia.	Julia.	Julia.	Julia.	Julia.	Robert.
33	34	36	40	48	48	Levi.	Louis.	Lydia	Mary.	Rufus.	Rufus.
35	35	37	41	49	49	Laura.	Laura.	Lizzie.	Martha.	Rachel.	Rachel.
37	38	38	42	50	50	Lizzie.	Martin.	Martin	Maggie.	Rebecca.	Rebecca.
39	39	39	43	51	51	Moses.	Moses.	Moses.	Noah.	Rosa.	Rosa.
41	42	44	44	52	52	Martha.	Maggie.	Oliver.	Oliver.	Samuel.	Samuel.
43	43	45	45	53	53	Noah.	Noah.	Peter.	Peter.	Silas.	Silas.
45	46	46	46	54	54	Peter.	Phebe.	Phebe.	Phebe.	Simon.	Simon.
47	47	47	47	55	55	Robert.	Robert.	Robert.	Robert.	Solomon.	Solomon.
49	50	52	56	56	56	Rachel.	Rebecca.	Samuel.	Sarah.	Sarah.	Sarah.
51	51	53	57	57	57	Rosa.	Rosa.	Silas.	Sophia.	Sophia.	Sophia.
53	54	54	58	58	58	Silas.	Simon.	Simon.	Susan.	Susan.	Susan.
55	55	55	59	59	59	Solomon.	Solomon.	Solomon.	Thomas.	Thomas.	Thomas.
57	58	60	60	60	60	Sophia.	Susan.	Theresa.	Theresa.	Theresa.	Theresa.
59	59	61	61	61	61	Thomas.	Thomas.	Victoria.	Victoria.	Victoria.	Victoria.
61	62	62	62	62	62	Victoria.	William.	William.	William.	William.	William.
63	63	63	63	63	63	Zachary.	Zachary.	Zachary.	Zachary.	Zachary.	Zachary.

NOTE.—The key to this table, printed on a card, will be sent, post paid, for 10 cents. Address the Publishers,

THE GREAT BATTLES AND SIEGES OF THE WORLD.

BATTLES.	Date.	Victors.
Actium	Sep. 2, B.C. 31	Augustus.
Adrianople	July 3, 323	Constantine.
Agincourt	Oct. 25, 1415	English.
Alexandria	Mar. 21, 1801	English.
Alma	Sep. 20, 1854	Allies.
Antietam	Sep. 17, 1862	Federals.
Arbela *	B.C. 331	Greeks.
Ascalon	Aug. 12, 1099	Christians
Austerlitz	Dec. 2, 1805	French.
Balaclava	Oct. 25, 1854	Eng., Turks.
Baltimore	Sep. 12, 1814	English.
Bannockburn	June 24, 1314	Scotch.
Bayonne	Mar. 19, 1794	French.
Blenheim *	Aug. 13, 1704	Marlboro'.
Borodino	Sep. 7, 1812	French.
Bosworth Field	Aug. 22, 1485	Henry VII.
Boyne	July 1, 1690	William III.
Breslau	Nov. 22, 1757	Austrians.
Bridgwater	July 25, 1814	Americans.
Bull's Run	June 21, 1861	Beauregard.
Bunker Hill	June 17, 1775	English.
Canræ	B.C. 216	Hannibal.
Carthage	B.C. 146	Scipio.
Cawnpore	Dec. 6, 1847	English.
Chalons *	A.D. 451	Aetius.
Charleston	May 12, 1780	English.
Chillanwallah	Jan. 13, 1849	"
Corrunna	Jan. 16, 1809	Sir J. Moore.
Crecy	Aug. 26, 1346	English.
Culloden	April 16, 1746	"
Dresden	Aug. 27, 1813	French.
Edgehill	Oct. 23, 1642	Parliament.
Flodden Field	Sep. 9, 1513	English.
Fort Sumpter	April 12, 1861	Beauregard.
Germantown	Oct. 4, 1777	English.
Gettysburg	July 1-3, 1863	Federals.
Gravelotte	Aug. 16, 1870	Prussians.
Hampton Roads	Mar. 9, 1862	"Monitor."
Hastings *	Oct. 14, 1066	Wm. the Con.
Inkerman	Nov. 5, 1854	Eng., French.
Issus	Oct. 2, 333	Alex. Great.
Jena	Oct. 14, 1806	French.
Lake Champlain	Sep. 11, 1814	Americans.
Lake Erie	Sep. 10, 1813	"
Leipzig	Oct. 16, 1813	Allies.
Lexington	April 19, 1775	Americans.
Lodi	May 10, 1796	Napoleon.
Lucknow	Mar. 25, 1858	English.
Lutzen	Nov. 6, 1632	Swedes.
" 2nd	May 2, 1813	Napoleon.
Magenta	June 4, 1859	French.
Marathon *	Sep. 28 B.C. 490	Greeks.
Marengo	June 14, 1800	Napoleon.
Marston Moor	July 2, 1644	Cromwell.
Metaurus *	B.C. 207	C. Nero.
Monterey	Sep. 24, 1846	Americans.
Montmorency	Aug. 10, 1759	French.
Naseby	June 14, 1644	Parliament.
Navarino	Oct. 20, 1827	Eng., F., R's.
New Orleans	Jan. 8, 1815	Americans.
Oporto	May 11, 1809	English.
Orleans *	May 8, 1429	Joan of Arc.
Otterburn	Oct. 10, 1388	Scots.
Pharsalia	B.C. 48	J. Cæsar.
Philippi	B.C. 42	Antonius.
Plassy	June 23, 1757	English.
Poictiers	Sep. 19, 1356	"
Prague	May 6, 1757	Prussians.
Pultowa *	July 8, 1709	Russians.

BATTLES.	Date.	Victors.
Quatre Bras	June 16, 1815	Allies.
Quebec	Sep. 13, 1759	English.
" 2nd	Dec 31, 1775	"
Ramilies	May 23, 1706	"
Romans *	A.D. 9	Arminius.
Sadowa	July 3, 1866	Prussians.
Salamanca	July 22, 1812	Wellington.
Salamis	B.C. 480	Greeks.
Saragossa	Aug. 14, 1808	Spanish.
"	Feb. 20, 1809	French.
Saratoga *	Oct. 17, 1777	Americans.
Savannah	Dec. 29, 1788	English.
Sedan *	Sep. 2, 1870	Germans.
Seringapatam	Feb. 6, 1792	English.
Silistria	June 15, 1854	Turks.
Sinope	Nov. 30, 1853	Russians.
Skalitz	July 27, 1866	Prussians.
Smolensko	Aug. 18, 1812	French.
Solferino	June 24, 1859	Fr. & Sard.
Span. Armada *	July, 1588	Defeat of Gylippus.
Syracuse *	B.C. 413	Wellington.
Talavera	July 27-8, 1809	Fr. & Sard.
Tchernaya	Aug. 16, 1855	Persians.
Thermoplyæ	B.C. 480	Austrians.
Toplitz	Aug. 2, 1762	English.
Toulouse	April 10, 1814	C. Martel.
Tours *	Oct. 10, 732	English.
Trafalgar	Oct. 21 1805	French.
Ulm	Oct. 20, 1805	"
Valmy *	Sep. 20. 1792	Americans.
Vera Cruz	Mar. 29, 1847	Germans.
Vionvills	Aug. 18, 1870	Wellington.
Vittoria	June 21 1813	French.
Wagram	July 5-6, 1809	Russians.
Warsaw	Nov. 4, 1794	English.
Washington	Aug. 25, 1814	"
Waterloo*	June 18, 1815	Russians.
Wilna	June 18, 1831	Prussians.
Woerth	Aug. 6, 1870	Cromwell.
Worcester	Sept. 3, 1651	Americans.
Yorktown	Oct. 19, 1781	Scipio.
Zama	B.C. 202	J. Cæsar.
Zela	B.C. 47	Allies.
Zurich	June 5, 1799	Eng., Dutch.
Zutphen	Sep. 22, 1586	
SIEGES.		
Acre	July 12 1191	Crusaders.
Badajoz	April 7, 1812	English.
Constantinople	April 6, 1493	Turks.
Delhi	Sep. 20, 1857	English.
Gibralter	July 24, 1704	"
Jerusalem	July 23, 1099	Crusaders.
Kars	Nov. 28, 1855	Russians.
Londonderry or Derry	July 30, 1689	Inhabitants.
Metz	Oct. 27, 1870	Germans.
Naples	Feb. 8, 1806	French.
Ostend	July, 1601 —Sep., 1604	Spaniards.
Paris	1870—1871	Prussians.
Rome	July 3, 1849	French.
Saragossa	Feb. 20, 1809	"
Sebastopol	Sep. 26, 1854 —Sep. 9, 1855	Allies.
Toulon	Dec. 19, 1793	Napoleon.
Vicksburg	July 4, 1863	Gen. Grant.
Vienna	July 14, — Sep. 12, 1683	King of Poland.
Warsaw	Nov. 4, 1794	Prussians.

* The 16 decisive battles of the world.

FACTS ABOUT THE PECULIARITIES OF THE EARTH, AIR, WATER, WIND, VOLCANOES, EARTHQUAKES; THE HUMAN SPECIES AND ANIMALS.

The powers of nature may be concentrated into two primitive forces, namely: Attraction and Repulsion. Relate nature, and you include all the facts environing on, and enveloped in, the material. Newton watched the apple fall, and by that fact guaged his theory as applied to the gravitation of greater bodies. Then Repulsion was set down as the cause of elasticity, and declared as the opposing element of Attraction. Apply Attraction, *wholly*, leave out the grand figure of Repulsion, and as a result you would have the earth accompanied with its millions of neighbor planets and earths, *one solid mass!*

LIGHT cannot be said to consist of the same matter as elementary heat. It may be reflected as well as projected, and the light from the moon is only as from a mirror, while the great sun projects its light from a distance of 95,000,000 miles from our earth in the space of only eight minutes. Evolution of Calorific bodies is probably a greater source of converging heat, than by the solar rays.

Oxygen and Nitrogen composes the air we breathe, in the ratio of 21 to 79. One could not support combustion without the aid of the other. The flame is not the hottest part of the fire, but is a "burning smoke." Air is perceptable to the touch, and also has weight—to evacuate a bottle of its air, lightens the bottle. Air is capable of elasticity or expansion—a bladder when filled with air and indented or pressed together, recovers its former shape when the weight becomes removed.

At the height of ten miles the atmosphere is only about one-eight of its density at the height of one mile.

A light breeze traveling at the rate of three and a quarter miles per hour, exerts a pressure three-quarters of an ounce to the square foot

A moderate breeze traveling	6½	miles	exerts	3½	oz.	pressure.		
A fresh breeze	"	16½	"	"	1	lb.	5	" "
A stiff breeze	"	32½	"	"	5	"	3	" "
A strong gale	"	56½	"	"	15	"	9	" "
A hurricane	"	79½	"	"	31	"	4	" "
A violent hurricane	"	97½	"	"	46	"	12	" "

Sound travels through the air about 1,100 feet per second, varying in speed with the condition and temperature of the air.

The lowest audible tone is 32 vibrations per second.

The highest audible tone is 16,384 vibrations per second, although 24,000 is said to be appreciable, but rather by feeling than hearing.

Air increases in elasticity 1-480 of its volume for every degree of Fahrenheit scale increase of temperature.

The elasticity of steam is doubled by every 30 degrees increase of temperature above 212 degrees.

The highest mountains are not capped with snow. The extreme limit of snow is little over 16,000 feet above the sea level, and above that limit there is no moisture in the atmosphere.

The speed of a steamboat through salt water is about three-sevenths of the speed of the circumference of its paddles.

The initial velocity of a 24 pounder cannon ball is about 16,000 feet per second.

Sound travels through air about 1,100 feet per second, through a denser medium, faster, and through one more attenuated, slower. Sound travels through water about 5,000 feet per second; through iron or steel, about 17,000 feet per second.

Light travels through space about 200,000 miles per second. Roemer, in 1676, calculated the speed of light at 192,300 miles per second, but the best authorities now agree on 186,000 miles.

The speed of electricity varies with the conductor and the conditions surrounding the conductor; the lowest measurement making speed of 2,300 miles per second, and the highest 200,000 miles per second.

A horse-power is calculated to be just sufficient to raise 33,000 pounds to the height of one foot in a minute.

Water is formed of Oxygen and Hydrogen, as 89 is to 11. Ice, is the natural state of water. The force of vapor is, in many instances, thirty times greater than that of gunpowder. It constitutes a great portion of the food of vegetables. As Oxygen is a constituent of air, as well as water, water contains air. Between the freezing point (32 degrees Fahrenheit) and the boiling point (212 degrees Fahrenheit) of water, the water will expand as follows:

Mercury	1-54	Brass	1-532
Lead	1-351	Gold	1-682
Copper	1-522	Tempered Steel	1-807
Silver	1-524	Forged Iron	1-819
Untempered Steel	1-927	Plate Glass	1-1122
Platina	1-1167		

At the level of the sea, water boils at 212 degrees Fahrenheit; alcohol boils at 173 degrees Fahrenheit; sulphuric ether boils at 97 degrees Fahrenheit; oil turpentine boils at 314 degrees Fahrenheit; chloroform boils at 142 degrees Fahrenheit.

To reduce the scale of one thermometer to that of another, use the following rules:

From 5-9 of the degrees Fahrenheit, subtract 32 degrees to find degrees Centigrade.

To 9-5 of the degrees Centigrade, add 32 degrees to find degrees Fahrenheit.

To 9-4 of the degrees Reaumur, add 32 degrees to find degrees Fahrenheit

From 4-9 of the degrees Fahrenheit, subtract 32 degrees to find degrees Reaumur.

Mercury freezes at 39 degrees below zero, Fahrenheit.

WINDS are regular and irregular; trade winds; monsoons; hurricanes; whirlwinds; and water-spouts.

Regular winds belong to the class which blow constantly in one uniform direction. Irregular winds follow no uniform course, but are interrupted, as in this country, where, for instance, at two different points within ten miles apart, they flow from different directions at the same time.

Trade winds belong to the coasts. The tropics sometimes have two opposite periodic winds alternating toward the north and south, and are called MONSOONS. A current of air, like a current of water, increases its velocity when its passage is straightened or narrowed. These gusts are called HURRICANES, and their direction is either to the north or south, northeast or southwest. Their origin is generally in a small, black cloud, when the rest of the sky is serene, or on the sea, when its surroundings are calm. Other hurricanes, much more violent than these, seem to proceed from the coast, having a swift, whirling motion which no human power can resist.

A sudden rarefaction, or any other contrary meeting of air currents, in the same spot, and at the same time, are called WHIRLWINDS. The WATER-SPOUT means a whirlwind at sea, where the vacum produced by two or more meeting currents, causes the water to rise up in cylindric form, or in the shape of a cone.

The trite theory that the earth is a shell, carrying within its great centre the ready lighted fires and stores of fuel for its final destruction, as well as its present warmth, is illustrated, and perhaps in a measure substantiated, by the fact that within the bowels of the mountain is harbored the smouldering sulphur and bitumen, the elements which, if ignited by subterraneous fires, causes volcanic eruptions. The volcanoes' mouth, often more than half a league in circumference, vomits forth torrents of smoke and flame, streams of lava, and showers of stones and cinders, which sometimes bury beneath its awful depths, entire cities, with their teeming numbers of human souls.

Where great ships, freighted with a nations commeroe, now plough the bosom of our oceans; where toilers and terrors of the sea now make their homes; and where the mighty cables of ingenuity link together sister continents, and with their transportation of fresh intelligence wake the caverns of the deep, this basin, so deep as to prevent this mighty water from running over, once was the site of volcanoes. Islands, now fairly groaning beneath the weight of humanity, animals and commerce, doubtless sometime ranked as low as other ocean bottoms, where sea-kings and monarchs made their beds Valleys were once sea bottoms, mountains, sea valleys, where the screeching engine now carries with it an air of progress and civilization, once rocked and lashed a mighty sea, which only volcanic forces could have heaved back, raising the earth to its present level.

EARTHQUAKES are of two kinds; one caused by subterraneous fires, and the explosion of volcances. The other kind of earthquake is produced by the explosion of inflammable matters; sulphurous materials; fermentation produced by filteration of water; these matters follow the (always) perpendicular strata, as though searching for a place of escape, and, meeting in these caverns, subterraneous air or vapor, produces in its passage a noise and motion, proportioned in its force to the resistance it is compelled to meet.

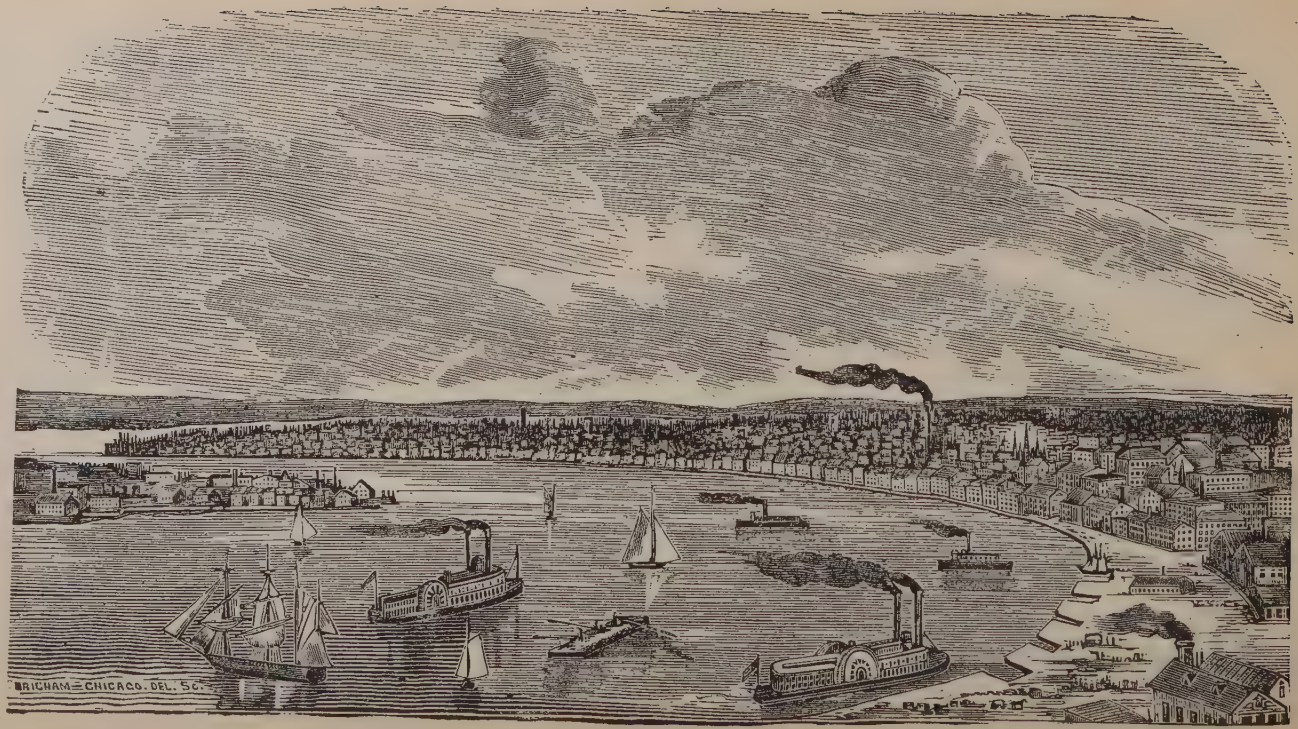
THE HUMAN SPECIES means man in all the sublimity of the term, and created in the image of his Maker! It combines that grand combination of soul and body, which, divided again, results in two separate natures,—the God-like and the mortal man. The basis of divine man is the soul; the beginning of mortal, the infant, or the spring of life. Youth-hood is life's beautiful summer. Middle-age is the Indian summer of life—the sublimest period of man's existence, while the crowing sheaf is the pure white winter or old age. The human species is the perfection of the Master's handiwork!

Man is a cosmopolite; that is to say, his organization is fitted for all climates. He lives under the equator, and in the temperate zones, as well as in the vigorous climes of the north and the south. He does not appear, however, to dwell beyond the 55th degree of southern latitude, and the 65th of northern.

In the human species we may establish three principal races, each of which contains varieties more or less strongly marked. These are the *white* or *Caucasian;* the *yellow* or *Mongolian;* and the *black* or *Melanian;*

ANIMALS. Without the animal, God's creation would be incomplete, and for our several uses, and in some cases seemingly to supply us with the curious, He has created the following species of quadrupeds; The Elephant, Rhinoceros, Hippopotamus, Camel, Dromedary, Cameleopard, Lion, Tiger, Panther. Leopard, Ounce, Zebra, Horse, Ass, Ox, Buffalo, Sheep, Goat, Hog, Guinea Hog, Dog, Hyena, Jackal, Porcupine, Genet, Civets, Cat, Antelope, Guinea Stag, Chamois, Ibex, Musk, Rabbit, Ferret, Rat, Mouse, Fat Squirrel, Garden Squirrel, Ichneumon, Badger, Sable, Ermine, Jerboa, Maki, Monkey, Pangolin and Phatagin, Rein-deer, Stinkards, Sloth, Kangaroo, Stag, Bear, Roe buck, Hone. Hedghog, Otter, Marmot, Mexican Shrew, Mole, Bison, Tapir, Alco, Gaschis, Conanda, Racoon, Cabiai, Tajacon, Conandon, Agonti, Coati, Opossum, Pacos, Indian Hog, Cavy. Armadillo, Beaver, Wolf, Fox, Weasel, Polecat, Lynx, Seal, Walrus, Elk, Glutton, Dormouse, Pouch and Desman.

Of the two hundred species of quadrupeds which Buffon supposes to exist, he calculates, that about ninety are original inhabitants of the old continent, and about seventy of the new, and that forty are common to both.



VIEW OF NEW ORLEANS, LA.

WHAT THE NATIONS OWE.

The aggregate of all national debts is not far from $23,750,000,000. Of this aggregate, between 96 and 97 per cent. is owed by twenty countries, and more than one-half by four countries, namely, France, England, United States, and Italy. The following table will exhibit the debts and asnual interest charge in millions of dollars, and the rate per cent. paid of the twenty countries owing the largest debts:

COUNTRIES.	Debts, millions of dollars.	Interest, millions of dollars.	Rate.
France	4,500	165	3⅔
England	3,900	133⅜	2⅝
United States	2,200	103	4⅔
Italy	1,950	76⅔	4
Spain	1,835	55	3
Austria	1,750	75	4⅓
Russia	1,700	67¼	4
Germany	1,000	45	4½
Turkey	675	47⅓	7
India	650	29⅓	4½
Brazil	410	15⅔	4
Holland	400	11¼	2⅞
Egypt	375	37⅓	10
Portugal	345	10¾	3
Mexico	317	20	6
Australasia	230	13⅓	6
Peru	185	13	7
Belgium	180	8¾	5
Hungary	150	7½	5
Canada	150	7½	5
Totals	22,950	912¾	

Adding around $800,000,000 for the smaller debts, gives the grand total of $23.750,000,000 as above stated. It will be seen that the annual interest charges upon the twenty countries enumerated is $912,750,000. To this should be added about $57,250,000 for unenumerated debts, making a total annual charge of a round thousand million dollars on the taxpayers of the world on account of interest on public indebtedness.

THE RATES AT WHICH SOME LEADING COUNTRIES ARE ABLE TO BORROW MONEY.

"England, 3¼ per cent.; India, 4 per cent.; Holland, 4½ per cent.; Canada, 4½ per cent.; Australasia, 4½ per cent.; United States, 5 per cent.; Russia, 5 per cent.; Brazil, 5 per cent.; Italy, 6 per cent.; Portugal, 6 per cent; Hungary, 7½ per cent.; Egypt 8 per cent.; Turkey 10 per cent.; Peru, 10 per cent; Spain, 15 per cent.; Mexico, 18 per cent."

This country, it will be seen, stands the same as France, Russia, and Brazil. and better than Italy, Portugal, Hungary, Spain, and Turkey, in Europe, and still further above Peru and Mexico.

During the past two years Great Britain has reduced her debt $50,000,000; Russia, $75,000,000; Germany, $40,000,000; and this country about $30,000,000. Italy has increased hers by $150,000,000; Spain by $570,000,000; Austria by $220,000,000; Turkey by $55,000,000; and India by $110,000,000.

Some small portion of the grand aggregate of national debts has been incurred for the purpose of more or less productive investment in the construction of railroads, canals and other public works. But by far the greater part has been incurred for the purpose of carrying on war, or meeting deficits in ordinary budgets. It is within bounds to say that national securities to the amount of twenty thousand millions—an amount equal to more than two-thirds of the value of all the property in the United States—represents wealth that has been utterly destroyed in the prosecution of wars of ambition, conquest, or revenge, or in the maintenance of vast military and naval establishments, or in the support of splendid and useless courts.

THE GREATNESS OF LONDON.

In few cities are there more than half a dozen railway stations. In London there are at least one hundred and fifty. Some of the railways never pass beyond its limits, and of one, the Tottenham & Hampstead, *Punch* says: "No one ever travels by it, as no one knows where it begins or where it ends." The Metropolitan and other intramural railways run trains every three or five minutes, and convey from twenty to fifty millions of passengers annually. Clapham is the great south-western junction, and through it seven hundred trains pass every day. Its platforms are so numerous, and its underground passages and overground bridges so perplexing, that to find the right train on changing, is one of those things "that no fellow can understand." As a proof of the expansive nature of London traffic, it was supposed that when the Metropolitan Railway was opened, all the city to Paddington omnibusses would be run off the ground; but, although it carried forty-three millions of passengers last year, it has been found necessary to increase the number of omnibusses on the southern route, and they yield one per cent. more revenue than before the opening of the railway.

Besides the railways, there are some fourteen or fifteen thousand tramcars, omnibusses and cabs traversing the streets. There are lines of omnibusses known only to the inhabitants of their own localities, such as those across the Isle of Dogs from Poplar to Milwall; from London bridge, along Tooley street, to Dockhead, &c. The London Omnibus Company have five hundred and sixty-three omnibusses, which carry fifty millions of passengers annually.

It is more dangerous to walk the streets of London than to travel by railway or to cross the Atlantic. Last year one hundred and twenty-five persons were killed, and two thousand five hundred and thirteen injured by vehicles in the streets. Supposing every individual man, woman and child made one journey on foot per diem, which is considerably above the average, the deaths would be one in eleven millions, while the railways only killed about one in fifty millions of passengers, and the Cunard Company of Atlantic steamers boasts of having never lost a passenger.

Other instances of the immensity of the population of London are that three-quarters of a million of business men enter the city in the morning and leave it in the evening for their suburban residences. There are ten thousand policemen, as many cab-drivers, and the same number of persons connected with the post office, each of which classes, with their families, would make a large town. When London makes a holiday, there are several places of resort, such as the Crystal Palace, the Zoological Garden, Kew Garden, &c., which absorb from thirty to fifty thousand each. The cost of gas for lighting is two million five hundred thousand pounds annually; the water supply is one hundred millions of gallons per diem. In the year 1873 there were five hundred and seventy-three fires; and for the purpose of supplying information on the passing events of the day, three hundred and fourteen daily and weekly newspapers are required

What London will eventually become it is idle to predict. It already stands in four counties, and is striding onward to a fifth (Herts). The probability is, that by the end of the century, the population will exceed five millions, and will thus have quintupled itself in the century. Should it progress at an equal rate in the next, it will in the year 2000 amount to the enormous aggregate of twenty-five millions; and the question that naturally arises is, how could such a multitude be supplied with food? But the fact is, that the more its population increases, the better they are fed. In the Plantagenet days, when the population was not a third of a million, famines were of frequent occurrence. But now, with the command of the pastures, the harvests and the fisheries of the world, starvation becomes impossible.

ENGLAND'S RULERS.

The following is a correct table of the reigning sovereigns of England, together with the date of the beginning of their reign:

DANES AND SAXONS.

Egbert	827	Edward II	975
Ethelwolf	837	Ethelred II	979
Ethebald II	857	Sweyn	1013
Ethelbert	860	Canute	1014
Ethelred I	866	Ethelred II, again	1014
Alfred the Great	871	Edmund II	1016
Edward I	901	Canute, again	1017
Athelstan	925	Harold I	1035
Edmund I	940	Hardicanute	1040
Edred	946	Edward (Confessor)	1049
Edwy	955	Harold II	1063
Edgar	957		

NORMANS.

William I	1066	Henry I	1100
Willliam II	1087	Stephen	1135

PLANTAGENETS.

Henry II	1154	Edward I	1272
Richard I	1189	Edward II	1307
John	1199	Edward III	1327
Henry III	1216	Richard II	1377

FIRST STEAMBOAT ON THE MISSOURI.

LANCASTER.

Henry IV.	1399	Henry VI.	1422
Henry V.	1413		

YORK.

Edward IV.	1461	Richard III.	1483
Edward V.	1483		

TUDOR.

Henry VII.	1485	Mary	1553
Henry VIII.	1509	Elizabeth	1558
Edward VI.	1547		

STUARTS.

James I.	1603	Charles I.	1625

Interregnum—Commonwealth.

STUARTS (RESTORED).

Charles II.	1660	William and Mary	1689
James II.	1685	Anne	1702

HANOVER.

George I	1714	George IV.	1820
George II.	1727	William IV	1830
George III.	1760	Victoria	1837

EMIGRATION.

We give the following table which embraces the statistics for ten years. The arrival of aliens were as follows:

Year.	No.
1866	233,418.
1867	242,731.
1868	213,686.
1869	258,989.
1870	212,170.
1871	229,639.
1872	294,581.
1873	266,818.
1874	140,041.
1775	84,560.

Of the aliens who arrived here during the past year, Germany furnished 25,559, Ireland 19,924, England 10,793, Austria 4,970, Sweden 3,303, Scotland 3,070, Russia 3,123, Norway 2,602, Italy 2,575, France 2,376, Denmark 1,854, Switzerland 1,439, and twenty-six other countries the balance. Of the 84,560 aliens, arriving during the past year, 37,527 were male adults, 28,905 female adults, 18,128 children under 12 years of age.

IMPORTANT LAND DECISIONS.

Decisions of the Secretary of the Interior has established the following principles:

HOMESTEADS.

The possession of an executor or administrator is, under the Homestead law, the possession of the heirs or divisee, subject to the right of administration vested in the officer, and the time allowed by the Court for said settlement of the estate must be counted for the heir or devisee in making final proof. The provisions of Sec. 2,291 of the Revised Statutes are substantially complied with by continual cultivation for the period of five years by the heirs or devisee, personal residence not being required in their case. At a hearing to determine the abandonment in the case of the deceased homestead claimants, a certified copy of the will and and other matters connected therewith may be introduced.

PRE-EMPTION.

A mortgage unsatisfied at the date of proof and entry, defeats a pre-emption claim; also decisions of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, to the effect that soldiers now in the regular army, under Sec. 2,293 of the Revised Statutes, perform the preliminary acts relating to homestead entries therein mentioned.

TIMBER CULTURE.

The planting of seeds or cuttings is not a compliance with the Timber Culture act, but the General Land Office does not inquire how the required trees are produced. If seeds or cuttings produce healthy-growing trees, the law is complied with. A timber-culture settler may relinquish a portion of the land embraced in his entry, and hold the remainder.

MINERAL LANDS AND RAILROAD GRANTS.

The question, "Can lands containing valuable deposits of mica, inuring, if agricultural, to the Union Pacific Railroad, be patented under the mining laws?" was answered: First—Lands containing valuable deposits of mica may be patented under the Mining law of May 10, 1872. Second—All minerals, except coal and iron, are excepted from the grants to railroads.

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON.

The number of cotton mills in operation in the United States is 2875, of which 181 are in the southern, and 694 in the northern states. Massachusetts has the largest number in the north, and Georgia in the south. The former has 206 and the latter 47. In 1875 the north used 1,097,000 bales against 1,094,387 bales in 1874. The southern mills during 1875 used 145,079 bales against 128,526 bales in 1874. The kinds of good manufactured are given in round figures, as follows:

	1875.	1874.
Threads, yarns, twines, lbs.	83,000,006	79,000,000
Plain sheetings, etc., yards	726,000,000	707,000,000
Fancy goods, yards	247,000,000	306,000,000
Print cloths, "	749,000,000	588,000,000
Ginghams, "	35,000,000	33,000,000
Ducks, "	28,000,000	30,000,000
Bags, number	10,000,000	6,000,000

In comparing the cost of production between the American and English manuacturers, it is stated that the American cotton costs the Manchester spinners one cent per pound more than the Lowell, which is more than the difference in the cost of wages, and therefore we can compete with England in markets where the cost of transportation is the same.

OCEAN TELEGRAPH CABLES.

Up to 1847, no substance suitable for the insulation of a submarine wire was known. In 1846, Mr. James Reynolds, of New York, invented a machine for covering wire with India rubber, and during the year 1847 covered a large amount of wire with this substance; but in consequence of drying it (vulcanization of rubber being then unknown), it proved a failure. Early in the spring of 1848, Mr. Craven brought a piece of wire covered with gutta percha to Mr. Reynolds, and asked if he could cover wire with gutta percha with his machine. Mr. Reynolds undertook to do so, and immediately poceeded to manufacture gutta percha covered wire. He covered the cable which was laid across the Hudson river between New York and Jersey City, which was the first gutta percha cable ever made and the first submarine wire ever constructed and successfully operated for the transmission of intelligence over a distance of half a mile. The first submarine cable ever laid in the sea, was laid between Dover and Calais, in 1850. It was a single strand of gutta percha, unprotected by any outside coating, and worked only one day. The next cable was also laid between Dover and Calais, in 1851. This cable contained four conducting wires, was twenty-seven miles in length, and weighed six tons per mile. This cable is still working, after having been down twenty-three years. The next long cable was laid in 1853, between Dover and Ostend, a distance of eighty miles, and contained six conducting wires, and weighed 5¾ tons per mile. It is still in working order. In 1853 a cable of one conducting wire was laid between England and Holland, 120 miles, weighing 1¾ tons per mile. This cable worked for twelve years. From 1853 to 1858 thirty-seven cables were laid down, having a total length of 3,700 miles, of which sixteen are still working. Thirteen worked for periods varying from a week to five years, and the remaining eight were total failures.

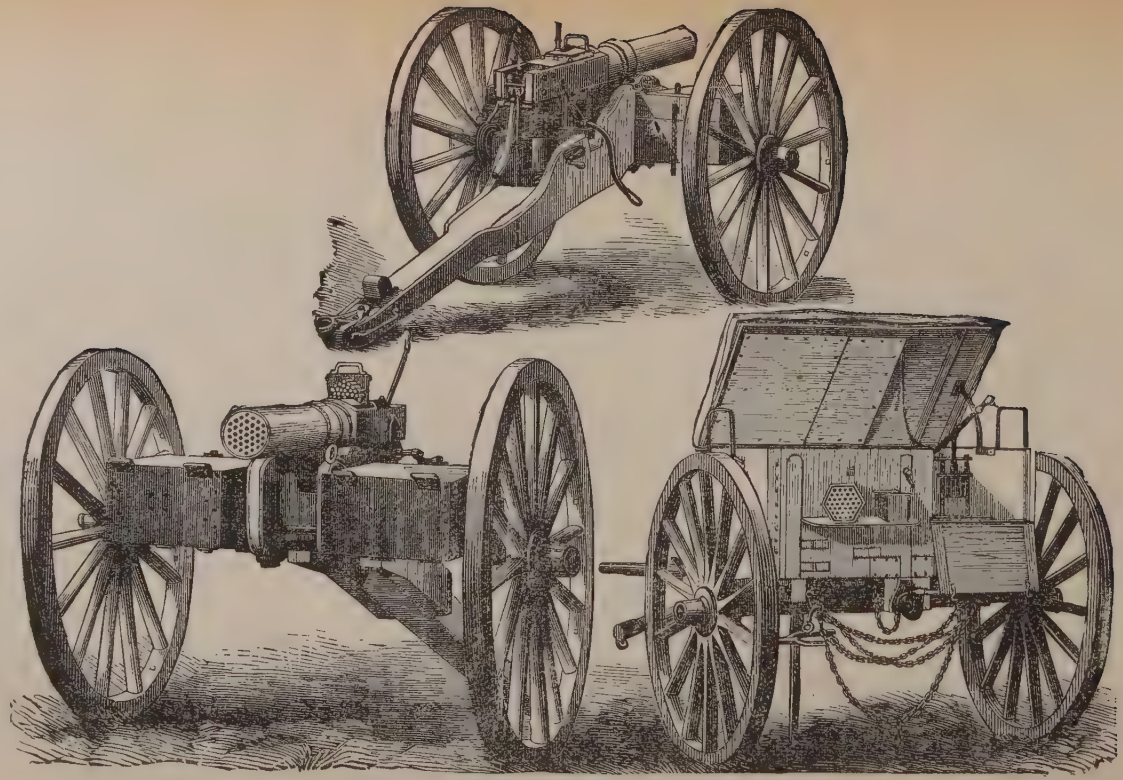
On the 6th of August, 1858, the first Atlantic cable was laid between Ireland and Newfoundland. The weight of this cable was one ton per mile, and its cost was as follows: Price of deep sea wire per mile, $200; price of spun yarn and iron wire per mile, $265; price of outside tar per mile, $20; total cost per mile, $485. Price, as above, for 2,500 miles, $1,212,500; price of twenty-five miles shore end at $1,450 per mile, $36,250; total cost, 1,249,235. This cable worked from August 10 to September 1, during which time 129 messages were sent from Valentia to Newfoundland, and 271 from Newfoundland to Valentia.

The next long cable which was laid, was from Suez to India, a distance of 3,500 miles, in 1859. This cable was laid in five sections, which worked from six to nine months each, but was never in working order from end to end.

The total length of all the cables which have been laid is about $70,000 miles, of which over 50,000 miles are now in successful operation. The 20,000 miles of cables which has thus far failed, represent fifty-eight in number.

Including the original 1858 cable, five cables have been laid down between Ireland and Newfoundland, of which only three are now in working order. These three were laid in 1866, 1873, and 1874. The cable of 1865, of a similar type as the above, has not been working for ver two years.

The maximum speed of signaling through 2000 miles of the Atlantic telegraph of 1858 was two and a half words a minute. The conductor of the Atlantic cable of 1858 consisted of a strand of seven copper wires of No. 22⅛ guage, weighing 93 pounds per mile, while those of 1865, 1866, 1873, and 1874, have each 300 pounds per mile. The highest rate of speed obtained through the 1858 cable was 2½ words per minute, while through the 1865, 1866, 1873 and 1874 cables, they have obtained a speed of 17 words per minute in regular working, and 24 words per minute upon an experimental test.



THE FRENCH MITRAILLEUR.
Used in the French and German War.

THE SALT TRADE.

The following table taken for the compendium of the ninth census, gives the production of salt in the several states as follows:

	1870. bu.	1860. bu.
California	174,855	44,050
Colorado	7,800	.....
Florida	25,130	40,000
Idaho	13,400	.....
Illinois	54,000	35,000
Indiana	1,020	.....
Kansas	10,000	169,665
Kentucky	64,000	.....
Louisiana	120,000	.....
Massachusetts	26,846	31,555
Michigan	3,981,313	2,300
New York	4,977,720	7,521,335
Ohio	2,898,649	1,743,290
Oregon	.....	12,000
Pennsylvania	579,970	1,016,800
Texas	29,986	20,800
Utah	1,950	.....
Virginia and West Virginia	4,635,813	2,076,513
Total	17,606,105	12,717,198

The above shows an increase of production during the ten years of 4,888,907 bushels. The increase during the last five years has been much greater The production in Michigan or 1875 was 4,408,324 bushels, an increase over the production of 1870 of 1,428,000 bushels. In the other principal producing states the increase on the average is fully up to this ratio. Assuming the above to be true, we are warranted in placing the total production of the country for 1875 at fully 30,000,000 bushels, an increase of more than 12,000,000 bushels over the production of 1870. In spite of this enormous increase in production, the importations for the past five years have steadily increased, as shown by the following table:

Years.	bu.
1875	15,450,045
1874	13,897,883
1873	14,150,484
1872	11,282,840
1871	10,415,307

The importations for 1870 nearly equalled the home production, being 17,436,082 bushels, an increase over that for 1869 by more than 6,000,000 bushels. With the steady increase of home manufacture and improving the quality of the product, it is quite probable that within a few years the United States will be enabled to supply the domestic trade, and have a surplus for export.

DRUGGING LIQUOR.

In 1866 four houses in New York city palmed off two millions of gallons of these deadly compounds. They buy the meanest whisky or spoiled cider, and "drug" it into the rarest wines in a few hours. It not unfrequently happens that a country seller drives in a few barrels of his spoiled slop, sells it to a manufacturer, does his shopping, and in a few hours drives back with a part of the same stuff "drugged" into wine or brandy, for which he paid an advance of four or five gallons. A Frenchman pointing to a barrel said, "Tell me what kind of wine or brandy you want and give me three hours, and I will draw it out of that barrell."

The more costly the liquor, the more certain the fraud. The whole champaign district is only twenty thousand acres, and produces only about 800,000 baskets per annum. Of this Russia consumes 160,000 baskets, France 162,000, England 220,000, Germany 146,000; leaving for America and the rest of the world only 112,000. Yet Yankees consume more than 1,000,000 baskets yearly. How dull it is in England, and Germany, and France, and Russia to imagine that they get any champaign when they consume twenty-five per cent. more than is produced.

Only 30,000 barrels of wine are produced on the Island of Maderia. America buys 50,000 barrels, and the rest of the world has a full share.

Port wine is manufactured in Douro Valley in Portugal. The valley is narrow and only sixty miles long. Yet all the world drinks from these vineyards. London alone drinks more than twice as much port wine as is produced, both good and bad. There is consumed annually more than one hundred times as much as is produced. Follow a gallon of pure juice from the press on the banks of the Douro. In the warehouse in Oporto, by the aid of beet whisky, elderberry juice, and water, it is made into five gallons. In the London Dock warehouse by the aid of potato-whisky, red saunders, and the like, it swells up into twenty gallons. In New York it takes a dose of strychnine, balladonna, and spoiled cider, and puffs up into thirty gallons. In the wholesale house in Chicago bad whisky, stramonium, and drugs, enlarge it to forty gallons. In the retailer's back room it gets another dose and comes out eighty gallons. We receive one drop in eighty, and that is twenty-five per cent. better than the average,

A BEER-DRINKING COUNTRY.

This country is getting to be emphatically a beer-drinking country. For the year ending July 1, 1875, the internal revenue reports show that there were 8,880 629 barrels of that beverage produced here. The number of breweries now in operation in the principal brewing States is as follows: New York 203; Pennsylvania, 235; Wisconsin, 232; Ohio, 210; California, 202; Illinois, 165; Michigan, 149. Massachusetts does not make much beer, but she drank last year 609,923 barrels, or more than any one of the fifty-one other States and Territories.

THE METALS.

Bronze is a compound of copper and tin.
Pewter is a compound of lead and tin.
Brass is a compound of copper and zinc.
German silver is a compound of copper, zinc and nickel.
Britannia is a compound of tin, antimony and copper.

STRENGTH OF VARIOUS SUBSTANCES.

With fifty-four inches between supports, a rod of cast iron, one inch square, will break under a load of 550 pounds.

A cube of cast iron, one inch each way, will be crushed under a pressure of ninety tons.

A bar of cast iron, one inch square, will break under a tensile strain of 9⅞ tons.

These figures show the capacity of best material. Very inferior iron would probably have not over one-half the above resisting power.

The actual cohesive force of different substances is as below. The size of the rod tested being in each case, one inch square, and the number of pounds show the actual breaking strain:

	lbs.		lbs.
Hard Steel	150,000	Locust Wood	20,000
Soft Steel	120,000	Cast Iron	19,000
Best Swedes Iron	84,000	Oakwood	17,000
Ordinary Bar Iron	70,000	Ivory	16,000
Silver	41,000	Elm Wood	13,000
Copper	35,000	Ash Wood	12,000
Gold	22,000	Horn	8,750
Whalebone	7,500	Pitch Pine Wood	7,500
Bone	5,750	Poplar Wood	5,500
Tin	5,500	Cedar Wood	4,800
Zinc	2,600	Lead	860

There are 3,064 known languages on the earth, and nearly 1,000 different forms of religion.

BRIDGES.

Bridges are of unknown antiquity. The Chinese invented suspension bridges, and one built in A. D. 65, is still in use. The Persians built the first stone bridges.

Caissons were first used in bridge building on the Westminister bridge, London, which is 1,250 feet in length, and has 15 arches or spans.

The first iron bridge ever erected, was over the Severn at Coalbridgedale, in Shropshire, England. It has a span of 100 feet, the arch being nearly semi-circular.

Among the most noted bridges are the Southwark bridge, London. It is of iron, having one span of 240 feet, and two of 210 feet each. There were 5,780 tons iron used in its construction.

The new London bridge which was finished in 1831, is of stone, 928 feet long, on five elliptical arches, the center one having a span of 152 feet.

High Bridge, of New York, is of stone, 1,460 feet long, on 15 arches, those over the river being 80 feet open, and 100 feet above the water. The parapet is 114 feet above high water.

The bridge across Menai Straits (Wales) is of wrought iron, 103 feet above high water, has two spans of 230 feet each, and two of 459 feet each.

The Victoria Bridge at Montreal, is 10,284 feet from bank to bank, and rests on 24 piers. The roadway over the river is a tube of iron 6,660 feet long, 16 feet wide, and 22 feet high.

The St. Louis bridge is of chrome steel, on three arches, the center one having a span of 520 feet, and being at the greatest 55 feet above high water, the side spans being each 502 feet, 50 feet above high water. The total length of the bridge proper is 2,045 feet, and of the approaches, 4,175 feet. The tunnel leading to the bridge on the St. Louis side, is 4,900 feet in length

The Schuylkill bridge, Philadelphia (suspension,) has a span of 340 feet.

The suspension bridge at Fribourg, Switzerland, has a span of 870 feet, 175 feet above the river.

The railway suspension bridge at Niagara Falls, has a span of 821 feet, 245 feet above the river.

The suspension bridge at Cincinnati, has a span of 1,057 feet, 103 feet above low water mark.

The proposed suspension bridge between Brooklyn and New York, is to have a clear span of 1,595 feet, and be 135 feet above the water.

THE CHASSEPOT.

Used by the French in the great war with Germany.

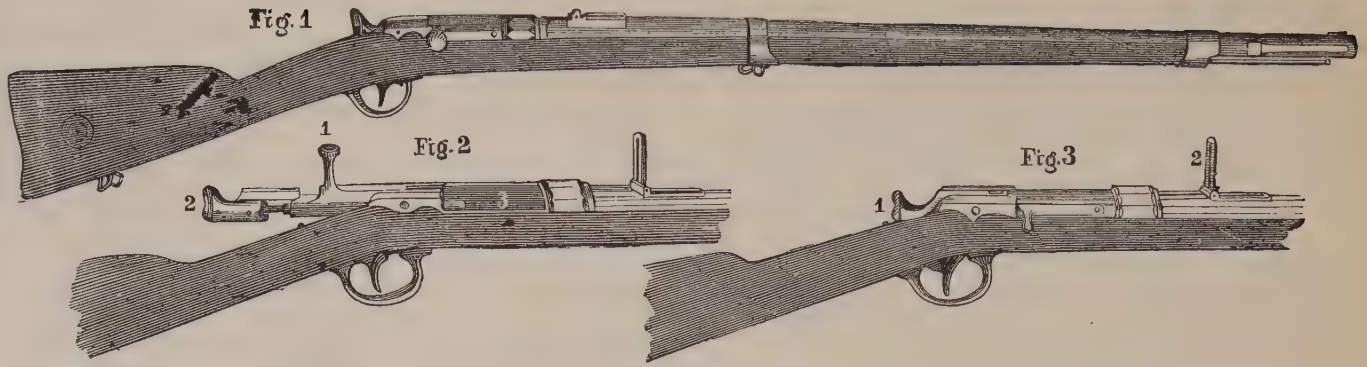


Fig. 1.—Chassepôt Rifle: breech closed. Fig. 2.—Ready for reception of cartridge: 1. Lever for opening and locking breech; 2. Head of the plunger, containing needle for exploding cartridge; 3. Chamber for cartridge. Fig. 3.—Rifle loaded and closed: 1. Plunger drawn out ready for explosion of cartridge; 2. Sight raised for long range.

ASTRONOMICAL FACTS.

Jupiter has four moons; Saturn has eight moons and a ring; Uranus has six moons; Neptune has one moon.

Our moon is 2,160 miles in diameter, and is distant 238,650 miles from our earth.

The sun is about 8-5,000 miles in diameter.

The planets known to the ancients were Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn.

The nearest fixed star to our solar system is Cygni No. 61, and this is 210,000,000 times more distant from the sun than we are, or about 20,000,000,000,000,000 miles.

NICKNAMES.

The United States are called Brother Jonathan and Uncle Sam.

Great Britain, more especially England, is personified as Johnny Bull.

France as Johnny Crapaud, and Germany is "der Faderland."

Fanueil Hall, in Boston, is called the Cradle of Liberty.

Maine is known as the Lumber, or Pine Tree State, and its inhabitants are called Foxes.

New Hampshire, the Granite State, is peopled by the Granite Boys.

Vermont is nearly translated when called the Green Mountain State.

Massachusetts is the Bay State, from the bay of the same name.

The pet name for Rhode Island, is Little Rhody.

Connecticut rejoices in several nicknames, being known as the Land of Steady Habits, the Nutmeg State, and the Freestone State.

The Knickerbockers who dwell therein, call New York the Empire State.

New Jersey is known to all the world as the State of Camden and Amboy, and her sons are known as the Jersey Blues.

Pennsylvania is the Keystone State, and its inhabitants are profanely called Leatherheads.

Delaware is the Blue Hen, and Muskrats inhabit it.

Maryland is the Mason and Dixon State, and its inhabitants were formerly called Crawthumpers.

Virginia is the old Dominion.

North Carolina is the Old North, or Turpentine State, while its people are called indifferently Tuckors or Tarboilers.

South Carolina is the Palmetto State.

Florida, the Peninsular State.

Mississippi, the Bayou State.

Louisiana, the Creole State.

Arkansas, the Bear State.

Kentucky the Dark and Bloody Ground, and its inhabitants are Corn Crackers.

Tennessee is the Big Bend State.

Ohio, the Buckeye State.

Indiana, the Hoosier State.

Illinois, the Sucker State, but the Suckers endeavor to give it the more poetical name of the Prairie State, or the Garden of the West.

Michigan is the Wolverine State.

Wisconsin, the Badger State.

Iowa, the Hawkeye State.

Minnesota, the North Star State; for its motto, "L'etoile du nord." Its inhabitants are Gophers.

Texas is the Lone Star State.

California, the Golden State.

The inhabitants of Missouri are called Pukes; of Georgia, Buzzards; of Alabama, Lizards; of Nebraska, Bug Eaters; of Kansas, Jay Hawkers, of Texas, Beetheads; of Oregon, Web Feet; of Nevada, Sage Hens; of Colorado, Rovers.

Of American cities, the following are common nicknames:

Atlanta, Ga., and Keokuk, Iowa—Gate City.

Baltimore, Md.—Monumental City.

Boston, Mass.— Hub, City of Notions, and Modern Athens.

Brooklyn, N. Y.—City of Churches.

Buffalo, N. Y.—Queen City of the Lakes.

Cairo, Ill.—Eden.

Chicago, Ill.—Garden City.

Cincinnati, Ohio—Porkopolis, the Queen City of the West.

Cleveland, Ohio—Forest City.

Dubuque, Iowa—Key City.

Detroit, Mich.—City of the Straits.

Hannibal, Mo.—Bluff City.

Indianapolis, Ind.—Railroad City.

Louisville, Ky—Falls City.

Lowell, Mass.—City of Spindles.

Nashville, Tenn.—City of Rocks.

New Haven, Conn.—Elm City.

New Orleans—Crescent City.
New York—Gotham, Empire City, New Amsterdam.
Philadelphia—Quaker City, Quakerdelphy, City of Brotherly Love.
Pittsburg, Pa.—Smoky City, Iron City.
Portland, Me.—Forest City.
Rochester, N. Y.—Flour City.
Springfield, Ill.—Flower City.
St. Louis, Mo.—Mound City.
Washington, D. C.—City of Magnificent Distances.

RULES OF COMMON LAW.

Law, as defined by Blackstone, is "a rule of action." It is usually treated of, as statute (or written,) common (or unwritten,) and civil (or Roman) law.

The following rules of common law are so general, and so little modified by statute, as to practically prevail in all parts of the country, and may be of use to all to know:

No man may profit by his own wrong; that is, no one can by law enforce a claim arising from his own wrongful acts.

A contract is an agreement between two or more persons competent to contract, by which, for a valuable consideration, some lawful thing is or is not to be done within a specified time.

Verbal contracts, with but few exceptions, are good in law, but are of course more difficult of proof than written ones.

Contracts about real estate (except leases for a less term than one year), or a contract to answer the debt, default, or miscarriage of another, or if the subject of the contract is not to be performed within a year, must be in writing.

Guarantors of contracts are released by the alteration of the terms of the contract without their consent.

A note obtained by fraud, under duress, or from one intoxicated, is voidable, except as to an innocent purchaser for value.

The, loss, destruction or theft of a note, does not release the maker or endorser, if proper notice is given them within a reasonable time.

Endorsers are released, if not notified of the dishonor of a note, within a reasonable time.

A note bears interest before maturity only when so expressed on its face.

All notes or contracts made by minors are voidable, except given for necessaries.

A contract obtained by fraud, can not be avoided by the perpetrator of the fraud.

A contract to work for a specified time, for a specified sum, is an entire contract, and the whole work must be performed before payment can be enforced.

An agent is one authorized to act for his principal, who will be bound by all acts of his agent, done within the scope of the authority given him, or that the public may be induced by acts of the principal to believe come within such authority.

The authority conferring upon an agent power to act, must be of as high order as the thing to be done; thus, the authority of an agent to execute an instrument under seal, must be under seal.

Common carriers are bound to take all who offer themselves to be carried, unless there is some sufficient reason for refusing.

Carriers have the right to make and enforce reasonable rules for their own protection and convenience.

Carriers are liable for injuries to passengers resulting from negligence or carelessness of their servants, unless the person injured is guilty of contributory negligence; of carelessness gross enough to excuse them.

The value of baggage lost by a carrier (when such as passengers are authorized to take) can be recovered of such carrier, and the contents of a trunk may be proved by the oath of the plaintiff.

"Good for this day only," printed on a ticket, will not invalidate the ticket or prevent its use on another day, unless it was a special contract or round trip ticket sold at less than regular rates.

Ordinary railroad tickets are good until used, but a ticket from one place to another is an entire contract, and the holder cannot stop at an intermediate place, and claim the right to be carried the remainder of the distance on that ticket.

The legal holidays of this country are: all Sundays, New Year's Day (January 1st), Washington's Birthday (February 22d), Independence Day (July 4th), Christmas Day (December 25th), and Thanksgiving Day, which is annually appointed either by the president or by the governors of the several states, or both, and is usually appointed for the last Thursday in November.

OLDEST NEWSPAPERS.

The oldest newspaper now in existence is the London Times, which was started in 1785.
The first newspaper published in America was in Boston, in 1690, but it soon failed.
The first daily paper in New York was the Journal and Register, which started in 1788.
The New York Sun was started in 1833, the Herald in 1835, and the Tribune in 1851.
From 1820 to 1850, there were 32 daily newspapers started in New York City which failed.

DIAMONDS.

The most celebrated diamonds of the world are:

That belonging to the French crown, which is said to be the most perfect stone in the world; it weights 136¾ carats.

That belonging to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, weighs 139½ carats.

That belonging to the Emperor of Russia weighs 195 carats, and is rose cut.

The Kohinoor is also rose cut, and weighs 186 carats. It now belongs to the English crown

That belonging to the King of Portugal is the largest known. It is still uncut, and weighs 1.680 carats, but some doubts are expressed as to the genuineness of the stone.

The largest diamond in America is the Jaccard diamond, owned by Eugene Jaccard, of St. Louis, which weighs 32¼ carats.

WATER LEVELS.

Lake Itasca, the headwaters of the Mississippi River, is 1,575 feet above the level of the sea.

The headwaters of the Missouri are 6,800 feet above the sea level.

The headwaters of the Illinois, 596 feet above the sea level.

The Ohio, at Pittsburgh, is 704 feet above sea level.

The average fall of the Mississippi River is 42-100 of a foot to the mile from St. Paul to the mouth of the Ohio, and 32-100 of a foot to the mile below the Ohio.

At the Rock Island Rapids, the fall is 24 feet in 14 miles, and at the Des Moines Rapids, 23 feet in 12 miles.

The average fall of the Missouri River, from Fort Union to its junction with the Mississippi, is 95-100 of a foot to the mile.

The average for the Ohio is 43-100 of a foot to the mile, and of the Illinois about the same.

The height of the various cities above the sea level, is:

New York	23 feet.	St. Paul, Minn	820 feet.
Albany	130 "	Peoria, Ill	548 "
New Orleans	10 "	Fort Laramie	896 "
St. Louis	450 "	Fort Benton	2,663 "
Cincinnati	550 "	Salt Lake	4,351 "
Chicago	591 "	Virginia City, Nev	6,505 "
Denver	5,267 "	Omaha, Neb	968 "

THE CALENDER.

In the year 46 B. C., Julius Cæsar instituted and decreed the Calendar called, in his honor, the Julian Calendar. Under this decree the year was of exactly 365 days and 6 hours, and for three years 365 days was the true and legal year, but the fourth year was composed of 366 days. This extra day was inserted between the 6th and 5th days before the Calends, or incoming of March, which corresponds with the 24th and 25th days of February of our year. As the 24th of February was called "sexto Calendas Martii," the interposed day was called "bis sexto Calendas Martii," or the double sixth day before the Calends of March, and from this we derive the term "bis sextile," to designate leap year.

As the true year, however, is somewhat short of the estimate then made, being only 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes and 49 7-10 seconds in length, it was found that in the year 1582, A. D., the error in time from the date of the institution of the Julian Calendar, amounted to nearly 12 whole days. Accordingly, Pope Gregory decreed that 10 entire days should be stricken from the Calendar, and that the day following the 3d of October, 1582, should be the 14th of October, 1582. Ten days were stricken out instead of the entire 12, in order to bring the Vernal Equinox forward to the same date at which it occurred in A. D. 325, at the sitting of the Council of Nice, which was on March 21st. The Pope also decreed the future succession of leap years, as explained in the preceding section under the proper table.

The period between 46 B. C., and A. D. 1582, is called the Julian Period, as the Julian Calendar was then used. The Calendar now in use is called the Gregorian Calendar, in honor of Pope Gregory, its founder.

Roman Catholic countries generally adopted the Gregorian Calendar immediately on the promulgation of the decree. Great Britain did not legally correct the Calendar according to this system until A. D. 1752, when the difference or error amounted to 11 days, (since the sitting of the Council of Nice,) and it was therefore enacted that 11 days should be stricken from the Calendar, and the day following the 2d of September, 1752, should be the 14th of September.

Under the old Julian Calendar, or system of notation, the year began on March 25th. Under the new, it begins on January 1st.

Russia still uses the Julian Calendar, and in consequence their dates are now 12 days behi d ours.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

The Baptists claim that their peculiar doctrines have been preached since the third century.

Congregationalism received its present form and discipline from John Robinson, in England, in 1602.

The Dutch Reformed Church was organized in the Netherlands in 1561.

Episcopalians claim direct and unbroken apostolic succession from St. Paul, on his mission to England about A. D. 60.

The Greek Church is a portion of the Church of Rome, from which it withdrew in A. D. 853, as a protest against the assumption of superiority by the Bishops of Rome.

Methodism originated with John Wesley in 1729, in England, but class meetings were not instituted and the society as such really organized until 1739.

The Moravians, or United Brethren, organized as a distinct branch of the church and adopted rules of discipline in 1457, in Bohemia.

Mohammedanism dates from the hegira or flight of the prophet from Mecca to Medina, in September, 622, although this Mohammed claimed to be prophetically inspired, and had preached his doctrines for several years before. He was born in August, 570, and first announced his mission in 611.

Mormonism was founded by Joe Smith in New York, in September 22, 1837, when he claimed to have found the Book of Mormons. He claimed to have had his first vision in 1820. The settlement at Nauvoo, Ill., was the first considerable congregation of his disciples, and the temple there was completed in 1841. Joe Smith was shot and killed, June 27, 1844.

Presbyterianism is the same as the Church of Scotland, and has been recognized ever since the principles of the Reformation were introduced into that country in 1527.

Roman Catholicism claims direct and unbroken apostolic succession from St. Peter, to whose care they claim, Christ specially delivered his church.

The Shakers originated in England, under the prophetess, Ann Lee, in 1770. This denomination is now confined to this country.

Swedenborg, the founder of the sect bearing his name, commenced his instructions, writings and ministrations in 1743.

Unitarianism was first preached towards the close of the second century.

Universalism claims to have been continuously preached since A. D. 150, when the so-called Sibylline oracles, which teach the doctrine of the final restoration of the lost, were written for the purpose of converting Pagans to Christianity.

There have been in all, 223 popes or bishops of Rome, of whom the following noticeable facts outside their religious histories, may prove interesting:

John X died in prison, A. D. 927.
Benedict IX was deposed, 1044.
Benedict X abdicated, 1058.
Adrian IV was the only English pope, and occupied the pontificate, 1154–1159.
Celestinus V abdicated, 1294.
Gregory XII abdicated, 1406.
John XXIII was deposed 1416.
Pius IX, the present pope, ascended the papal throne, 1846.

In the Roman Church, absolution is declared as absolute to the individual. In the Greek Church it is prayed for to those who are penitent, and in the English Church it is declared to all who are penitent.

ESTIMATES OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

In calculating capacity of cisterns and tanks, 32 gallons are allowed to the barrel.

A barrel of flour contains 196 lbs. (or 7 English quarters) of flour.

A barrel of pork, beef or fish contains 200 lbs. of meat besides the brine.

A quintal of fish is one hundred weight of dried fish that is, in America, 100 lbs. In England, 112.

A barrel of salt contains 10 English quarters, or 280 lbs. salt. A bushel of salt is 70 lbs., or one quarter of a barrel.

A keg of powder contains 25 lbs. of powder.

A firkin of butter should contain one English cwt. (112 lbs.) of butter; but any keg of butter that approximates to that weight is now called a firkin.

Forty feet of round, or 50 feet of hewn timber is called a ton or load.

One cubic yard of earth is called a load.

Glaziers and stone cutters calculate their work by the square foot.

Painter, plasterers, pavers, ceilers and paper hangers calculate by the square yard.

Flooring, roofing, partitioning, slating, tiling, and some kindred kinds of work are calculated by the "square," which is 10 feet square, or 100 square feet.

Twenty-four and three-fourths cubic feet make 1 perch of stone or masonry, when strictly speaking; but the custom is so general as to be legal for masons to charge for 16½ cubic feet to the perch, unless the true perch of 24¾ cubic feet is distinctly stated, as in the case in all government advertisements for contracts of such work.

One thousand shingles are estimated to "the square," when exposed 5 inches to the weather.

Bricklayers calculate every wall as 12 inches thick when estimating by square or square yard.

Joiners, bricklayers, plasterers, and kindred trades, calculating their work, allow only one-half of the actual openings for doors, windows, and vacant places.

In calculating stone or brick work, the outside line is taken as the length, and no allowance is made for corners.

When grain is sold by measure, struck measure is meant and used. Old laws define this to mean that after the measure is heaped full, the excess is struck off with a round stick or roller, straight, and of the same diameter from end to end. This process would leave the vessel just evenly full.

Corn in the ear, fruit and feed are usually sold by heaped measure, which would make a Winchester bushel hold a little more than 5 pecks.

Fifty-seven and one-quarter cubic feet make one chaldron.

Four hundred and twenty-one and seven-eighths cubic feet, or a cube of 7½ feet, make 1 ton (English, 2240 lbs.) hay in the mow.

Hay, as usually delivered, weighs 5 lbs. to the cubic foot.

Hay well pressed weighs 8 lbs. to the cubic foot.

Straw, loose, weighs 3⅓ lbs.; well pressed, 5⅓ lbs, to the cubic foot.

A gallon of water weighs 8⅓ lbs.

A gallon of oil weighs 7¾ lbs.

A gallon of molasses weighs 11⅔ lbs.

A gallon of alcohol weighs 6 19-20 lbs.

A gallon of spirits turpentine weighs 7 5-16 lbs.

The United States government, which, under the Constitution alone has the power to regulate the matter, has made no provision for the weights per bushel of any articles, and as almost all grains, seeds and roots are now sold by the weighed bushel, and the customs of each State being different, much misunderstanding has arisen when buyers and sellers are resident of different States. In the following table, the most useful weight of the article is given, and some of the principal variations from it are noted;

Barley	48 lbs.	California, 50 lbs. Vermont and Mass., 46 lbs. Pennsylvania, 47 lbs.
Beans	60 "	New Jersey, 63 lbs. New York, 62 lbs.
Blue Grass Seed	14 "	
Buckwheat	52 "	California and Illinois, 40 lbs. Connecticut, 45 lbs. Indiana and New Jersey, 50 lbs. Massachusetts and Vermont, 46 lbs. Minnesota, Wisconsin and Oregon, 42 lbs. New York and Pennsylvania, 48 lbs.
Castor Beans	46 "	
Clover Seed	60 "	New Jersey, 64 lbs. Ohio, 62 lbs.
Flaxseed	56 "	New Jersey and New York, 55 lbs.
Hempseed	44 "	New Jersey and New York, 48 lbs.
Corn	56 "	
Ear Corn	70 "	Indiana, Iowa and Missouri, 68 lbs.
Oats	32 "	Iowa, Missouri and Wisconsin, 35 lbs. Kentucky, 33⅓ lbs. Maine, Mass., New Hampshire and New Jersey, 30 lbs. Oregon, 34 lbs. Connecticut, 28 lbs.
Onions	57 "	Indiana, 48 lbs. Rhode Island 50 lbs. Massachusetts, 52 lbs. Ohio, 56 lbs.
Peas	60 "	New Jersey, 64 lbs.
Potatoes	60 "	
Rye	56 "	
Salt	70 "	
Timothy Seed	45 "	New York, 44 lbs. Wisconsin, 46 lbs.
Wheat	60 "	Connecticut, 56 lbs.
Bran	20 "	
Coal	80 "	Bituminous; 70 lbs. Cannel.

Many of the weights, it will be observed, are based on the English ton; for instance: rye and corn are 2 quarters, or 56 pounds to the bushel.

A book is described as a folio, quarto, etc., according to the number of folds it takes to reduce the paper on which it is printed to the size of a page of the book.

A sheet folded once, or in	2	leaves,	makes a	folio.
" " twice "	4	"	" "	quarto.
" " four times	8	"	" "	octavo.
" " six "	12	"	" "	duodecimo.
" " eight "	16	"	" "	16 mo.
" " twelve	24	"	" "	24mo.
" " sixteen	32	"	" "	32mo.

TABLES.

AMERICAN.

10 mills.....make 1 cent.
10 cents..... " 1 dime.
10 dimes..... " 1 dollar.
10 dollars..... " 1 Eagle.

FRENCH

10 millimes.....make 1 centime.
100 centimes..... " 1 franc.

ENGLISH.

4 farthings.....make 1 penny.
12 pence..... " 1 shilling.
20 shillings..... " 1 pound.
21 shillings..... " 1 guinea.
6s 8d..... " 1 noble.
12s..... " 1 angel.
13s 4d or ⅔ L..... " 1 merk.
5s..... " 1 crown.

According to the table of mortality, the reasonable expectation, or rather the average duration of life, would make probable that at any certain age there was still unexpired of a man's life as below:

At birth	14.25	At 40 years	15.60
" 5 years	31.05	" 45 "	13.75
" 10 "	30.00	" 50 "	11.95
" 15 "	26.75	" 55 "	10.30
" 20 "	23.75	" 60 "	8.75
" 2 "	21.40	" 65 "	7.40
" 30 "	19.50	" 70 "	5.80
" 35 "	17.50		

The River Jordan is 180 yards wide, and 3 feet deep at its mouth.
The Sea of Galilee is 13 miles long, and 6 miles broad at its greatest with.
Palestine is about 200 miles long and about 60 miles wide on the average.
From Dan to Beersheba, by an air line, is 125 miles.
From Jerusalem to Jericho, is 15 miles.
The great pyramid at El Guzeh, in Egypt, is 746 feet square at the base; and 450 feet 9 inches high.
The second pyramid is 690 feet 9 inches square, and 447 feet 6 inches high.
The third is 354 feet 6 inches square, and 203 feet high.
At some distance from these are six smaller pyramids
The Sphinx is the figure of a human headed, recumbent lion, hewn out of solid rock.
The defects, and portions of the legs, are supplied with stone casings. It is 188 feet 9½ inches long.
A slow river runs as the rate of 2 miles per hour.
A rapid river runs at the rate of 6 miles per hour,
A man is supposed to walk 4 miles per hour.
A clipper ship sails 10 miles per hour.
A horse trots when on the road, 12 miles per hour.
A horse runs when on the road, 20 miles per hour.
A steamboat runs 22 miles per hour.
A hawk, it is said, can fly 150 miles per hour.

A three-penny nail is 1 inch long.
A four-penny nail is 1¼ inch long.
A five-penny nail is 1¾ inch long.
A six-penny nail is 2 inches long.
An eight-penny nail is 2½ inches long.
A ten-penny nail is 2¾ inches long.
A twelve-penny nail is 3 inches long.
A twenty-penny nail is 3½ inches long.

The number of kernels in one pound of different articles, will average as follows: Wheat, 10,500; rye, 23,000; barley, 15,400; oats, 20,000; clover seed, 250,000.

BALLOONING.

June 5, 1783, the first balloon on record was sent up from near Lyons, France, by Stephen Joseph Montgolifer. This was inflated with hot air.
August 27, 1783, a balloon inflated with hydrogen was sent up from Paris by the brothers Robert.
Towards the close of the same year, a young man by the name of Pilate de Rozier, made an ascent in a hot air balloon, but only to the height of 300 feet, the balloon being held down with ropes.
November 21st, 1783, the same Rozier with the Marquis d'Arlandes, made the first balloon ascension properly so-called. They ascended to the height of 3,000 feet, traveled about six miles, and descended safely in about twenty-five minutes. This was in a hot air balloon.
December 1st, 1783, Messrs. Charles and Robert ascended from Paris in a balloon inflated with hydrogen, were up nearly two hours, and landed near Nesles, twenty-five miles distant.
June 28th, 1784. The first lady who ever made a balloon ascension was Madame Thible, who went up on this date with M. Fleurant. They started from Lyons and attained the height of 13,500 feet.

THE PRUSSIAN NEEDLE GUN.

Used in the great war between France and Germany.

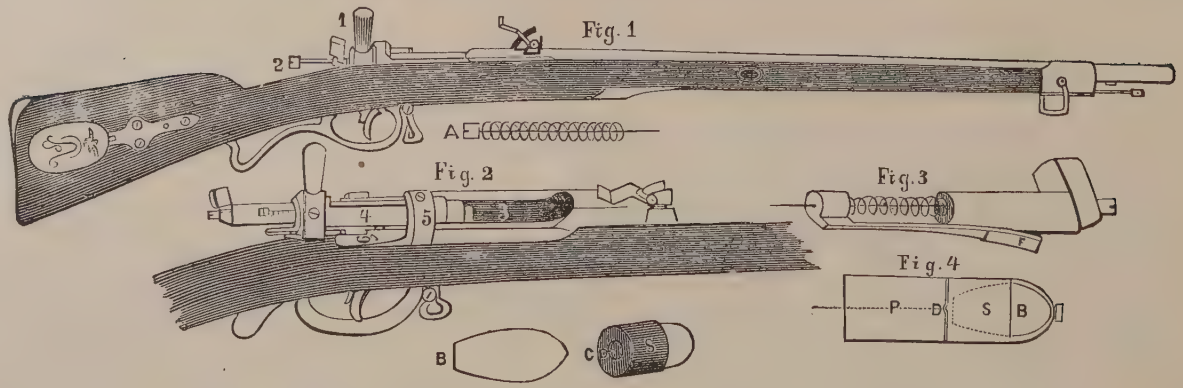


Fig. 1.—1. Lever that locks in cylinder; 2. Needle drawn back ready for projecting into cartridge. **Fig. 2.—3.** Chamber for cartridge; 4. Cylinder holding needle-case; 5. Cylinder that passes under band; 6. Trigger that pushes on spring, F, in Fig. 3. **Fig. 3.**—Case containing needle: F, spring lifted by trigger, 6, in Fig. 2. **Fig. 4.**—Section of cartridge: P, powder; D, detonating powder in hole of sabot; S, sabot holding the ball; dotted line shows passage of needle on to detonating powder at D, through the gunpowder, marked P. A, needle in spiral spring; B, ball; C, sabot containing ball; D, detonating powder at end of sabot.

January 7th, 1785, Mr. Blanchard and an American named Dr. Jeffries, crossed the English Channel, from Dover to Calais, in a balloon.

August 23d, 804, the first fatal balloon accident happened. In an endeavor to cross the English Channel, from Calais to Dover, the balloon took fire from some unexplained cause, and Rozier, its occupant, was precipitated some 3,000 feet to the ground.

September 15th, 1804, the first ascension for scientific purposes was made, and a height of 23,040 feet was attained.

In 1862, it is said that a height of 37,000 feet, or seven miles was attained.

April 15th, 1875, Messrs. Sirel, Tissandier and Croce Spinelli, then French scientists and æronauts, made an ascension from Paris in the balloon Zenith, and attained the height of over 8,000 metres, or five miles. The air at that height was so attenuated as to be incapable of supporting life, and they had provided themselves with reservoirs of oxygen to breathe from occasionally. After reaching the height of 7,000 metres, M. Tissandier became paralyzed and unconscious. On their descent he was found still unconscious and his two companions dead in the car. It is presumed that they were suffocated by the escaping gas.

MONEY.

Values of several coins in American gold:

ANCIENT.

Jewish	Shekel of Silver	$00.44 75-100
	Talent of Gold	27.37 50-100
	Obolus	0.02 75-100
Grecian	Obolus	0.03 23-100
	Drachma	0.19
Roman	Sestertius	0.04 20-100

MODERN.

Dollar.	Argentine Republic, Canada, United States, Egypt, Hayti, Liberia, and Sandwich Island,	$1.00 00-000
"	Bolivia, Central America, Peru and Ecuador,	0.96 50-100
"	Mexico	1.04 75-100
Peso.	Chili	0.91 23-100
"	Cuba and Porto Rico	0.92 58-100
"	Paraguay	1.00 00-000
"	United States of Columbia	0.96 50-100
"	Venezuela	0.77 73-100
Patacor.	Uruguay	0.94 98-100
Yen.	Japan	0.99 70-100
Mibreis (or 1000 Reis.)	Brazil	0.54 56-100
" " "	Portugal	1.08 47-100
Pound Sterling.	Great Britain and Jamaica	4.86 65-100
Crown.	Denmark, Norway and Sweden	0.26 80-100
Drachm.	Greece	0.19 30-100
Marc.	German Empire	0.23 82-100
Rouble.	Russia	0.77 17-000
Florin.	Austria	0.47 60-100
"	Netherlands	0.40 50-100
Franc.	France, Belgium and Switzerland	0.19 30-100
Lira.	Italy	0.19 30-100
Peseta.	Spain	0.19 30-100
Rupee.	India	0.45 84-100
Mahbut.	Tripoli	0.87 09-100
Piastu.	Turkey	0.04 39-100
"	Tunis	0.12 50-100

Values of different coins frequently mentioned but not in active circulation:

Ducat	Austria	$ 2.28 30-100
Real.	Spanish Countries	0.12 20-100
Doubloon.	South America	15.50 30-100
"	Mexico	15.59 30-100
Thaler.	Germany	0.71 40-100
Guilder.	"	0.39 97 100
Ricksthaler.	"	0.27 30-100
Dollar, as minted by the English for the China trade		1.04 00-000
Trade Dollar.	United States	1.04 75-100

The present law makes both the gold and silver coin to be of 9 parts pure metal, and 1 part of alloy. In the gold coin, the alloy consists of equal parts of silver and copper. In the silver coin the alloy is of pure copper.

In the minor coins, the silver 3 cent piece is of 3 parts silver and 1 part copper; the nickel coins are of 88 parts copper and 12 parts nickel.

The English gold coin are 11 parts pure gold and 1 part alloy. The silver coin are 222 parts silver, 18 parts alloy.

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